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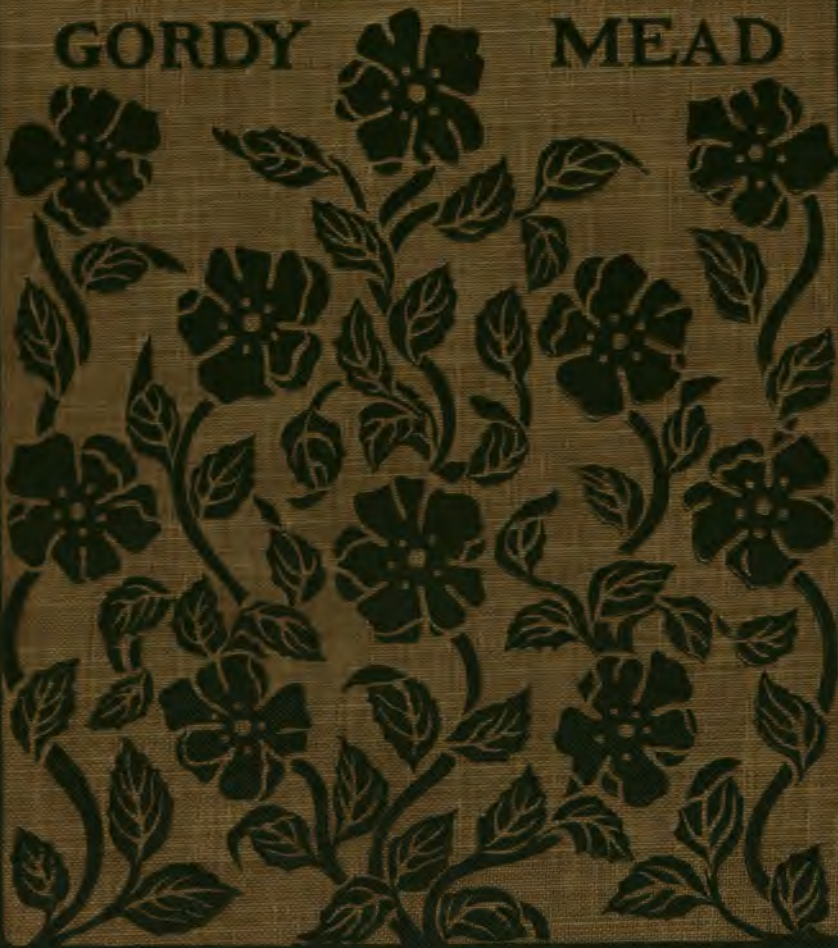


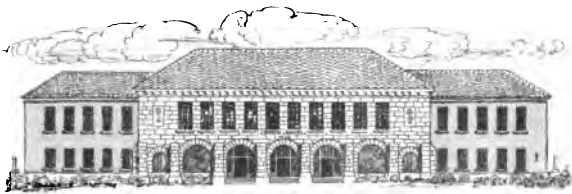
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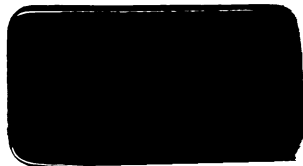


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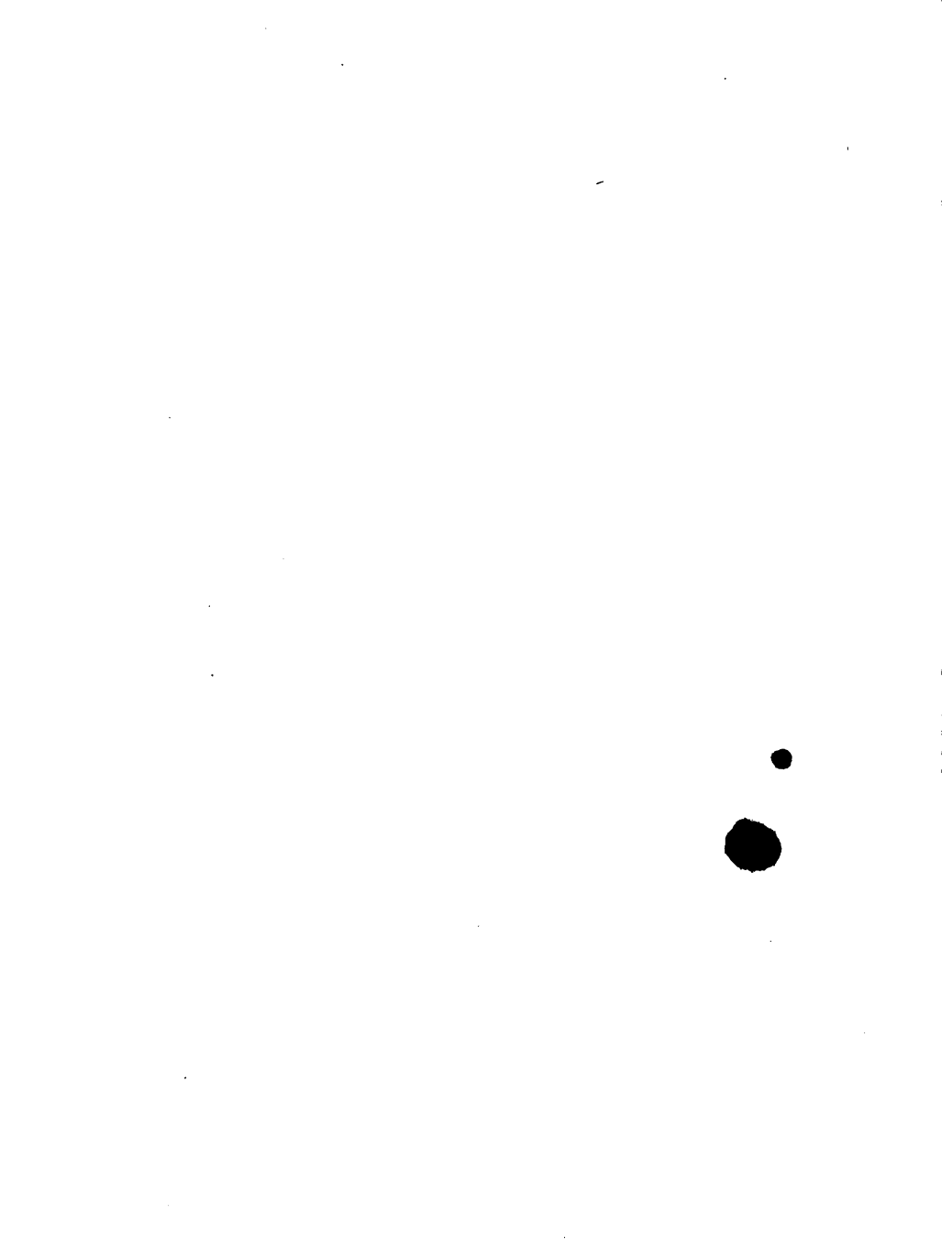
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GRAMMAR LESSONS

A SECOND BOOK IN ENGLISH

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NEW YORK
CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

1904

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TROW DIRECTORY
PRINTING AND BOOKBINDING COMPANY
NEW YORK



PREFACE

THE advisability of teaching English grammar in the elementary school has of late years been much debated. Some teachers maintain that too much time is devoted to the subject, and some find no place for it in grades below the high school. At present the general trend of educational opinion decidedly favors the teaching of at least the rudiments of technical grammar in the higher elementary grades. There is, however, a growing conviction that the unavoidable difficulties of the subject have been needlessly increased in many cases by dealing too much with mere abstractions, and by dwelling upon a multitude of relatively unimportant details.

The aim of the present book is so to simplify the subject as to bring it within the comprehension of grammar-school pupils. It therefore takes little account of matters of secondary importance, and lays emphasis upon the fundamental principles underlying the expression of thought in English. Part I is devoted to a simple exposition of such matters as can in no case be omitted. Part II contains a fuller statement of the principles outlined in Part I, and a more copious body of exercises and other illustrative matter.

No effort has been spared to bring the pupil, by means of carefully graded exercises, to understand clearly what a sentence is, as distinguished from a phrase or a clause, and also to recognize the various kinds of sentences that he spontaneously employs in his everyday speech. Hence there have been presented at the outset the two main divisions of the sentence—the complete subject and the complete predicate. The elements that appear in more complicated sentence structure are then considered.

The analysis of the sentence into its component elements naturally involves the classification of words as parts of speech. In the explanation of this classification repeated emphasis is laid upon the *function* of a word, a phrase, or a clause, in a sentence, as determining what part of speech each represents. The functional character of every part of a sentence cannot be too often emphasized, since English is, in the main, an analytic rather than a synthetic language, and the grammatical character of each element in a sentence is in most cases indicated by its relations to other words. Moreover, owing to the extremely scanty inflectional variation of English words, our language is in large measure a language of phrases, and the adjectival or adverbial nature of each phrase must be determined according to the work each has to do. A special effort has therefore been made to lead the pupil to appreciate the prime importance of the phrase as a means of expressing fine shades of meaning.

Analysis of essential relations, as already suggested,

is a central feature of the present book, but detailed *formal* parsing has been reduced to the minimum. This course has been adopted in the belief that the essentials in the study of English grammar are few, but that these must be so impressed upon the pupil that he shall be unable to escape or to forget them. Accordingly, in the parsing exercises special stress has been laid upon the case relations of nouns and pronouns, upon the grammatical character and relations of phrases and clauses, upon the tenses of verbs, and the relation of a verb to its subject or its object. But, on the other hand, little space has been devoted to complicated rules with numerous unimportant exceptions, and to elaborate formulæ dealing with minor details. The system of diagrams suggested for use in graphic analysis is extremely simple and is designed to save time for pupil and teacher alike. In the first place, it enables the pupil to indicate by a line or two the relations of the various elements that compose the sentence; and, in the second place, it enables the teacher to assign to large classes definite tasks that can be rapidly and easily examined. But this system of graphic analysis has obvious limitations. The attempt to take account in a diagram of all the ramifications of long and involved sentences is sometimes as unwise as the attempt to reproduce in a map every minute difference in elevation.

On the constructive side the aim throughout the book has been to lead the pupil to use his grammatical knowledge as an aid in expressing his thoughts with

clearness and accuracy. The exercises have been made as practical as possible, and the principle involved in each has been repeatedly put to the test in the classroom. Experience has shown that by skilful and patient training almost any pupil can be made to see that consciously or unconsciously he must conform to grammatical principles whenever he speaks or writes, and that even so apparently arbitrary a matter as punctuation is rational and simple when approached with a thorough grounding in the elements of grammar. But this desirable result will not be accomplished in the elementary school unless fine-spun subtleties and needless technicalities are studiously avoided. The competent teacher will limit the field to matters of the first importance; he will be content to do one thing at a time, and he will "make haste slowly."

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

THE teaching of English grammar in the elementary school presents more than one knotty problem, even to the teacher of long experience. No apology, therefore, need be offered for calling attention to some matters of fundamental importance for the successful treatment of the subject.

Without doubt, one reason why many boys and girls heartily dislike grammar is that they find themselves confronted with difficulties beyond their comprehension. The logical powers of grammar-school pupils are too immature for the analysis of complicated sentences written in a style far above their habitual modes of expression. If, therefore, such work is forced upon them, they naturally evade it as far as they can, for they feel that in large measure they are dealing with masses of unmeaning words.

But grammar is far too important both as a discipline and as a practical instrument to deserve to be regarded as something out of all relation to everyday speech. Pupils can, we believe, be made to see that grammar is a study full of interest and profit, but, in most cases, such a result is possible only through a method of presentation that proceeds very gradually and illuminates every principle with an abundance of concrete illustrations.

The present book has been carefully constructed on the inductive plan. In the explanation of fundamental principles there has been introduced a large amount of illustrative

matter leading up to a generalized statement. But, in addition to this, the teacher must be ready at any point to furnish supplementary matter such as a class may require. A sufficient number of concrete examples to illustrate every grammatical principle for every sort of pupil would expand a text-book to a size far too bulky for convenient handling. Yet such illustrative material is easy to find, for it lies abundantly at hand in readers, histories, and other text-books. Moreover, there is a greater amount of such matter in this grammar itself than may at first appear. As is suggested at various points, a set of examples may be used for some purpose in addition to the one in view in the special exercise where they occur. There should, then, be no difficulty in finding abundance of illustration for every principle discussed in this book.

The definitions, based upon the examples, have been framed with unusual care, but we hope that the teacher will not require them to be learned until they are thoroughly understood. When, however, the meaning is firmly grasped, each definition should be memorized as a compact statement of a truth embodied in the examples.

As for the exercises, some are designed to illustrate principles, and some to test the pupil's grasp of the subject by requiring him to put his knowledge to actual use in sentences of his own. Nothing is better than actual sentence construction by the pupil as a means of fixing a principle in mind.

Pupils will, as a rule, not make satisfactory progress in their study of grammar unless they have frequent practice in selecting the various parts of speech. We recommend, therefore, that additional exercises of this sort be introduced by the teacher whenever a class shows the need of such drill.

Parsing is a matter of much importance. But we beg the

teacher not to waste time in going through a monotonous formula in which all the properties of a given part of speech are enumerated, when the thing desired is a knowledge of the *essential* part which the word plays in the sentence. We therefore suggest that the abbreviated form of parsing, outlined on page 268, be taken up as soon as the formal parsing is understood.

Pupils must somehow learn punctuation. But most pupils will be unlikely to understand the reason for punctuation unless they are taught that it has value only in so far as it aids in making thought clear. We have therefore endeavored to connect the principles of punctuation with the principles of grammar. This matter deserves special attention, and should receive further illustration at the hands of the teacher. Dictation exercises are particularly valuable for this side of the work. For convenient reference, the scattered suggestions on punctuation are gathered together in the Appendix, and should be thoroughly learned.

Intelligent review is of great value in all study of language, and it has received careful attention throughout this book. In Part III will be found, in addition to the occasional reviews, a comprehensive series of review exercises dealing with all the important aspects of the subject. This portion of the book will doubtless be especially welcome to more than one practical teacher.

If studied according to right methods, grammar should no longer be a lifeless, repulsive study, but one of genuine interest. Yet, however carefully planned a text-book may be, and however skilled the teacher, the study of mere grammatical principles will never of itself result in giving the learner the power of habitually correct speech. It may enable him to see what his mistakes are and to make the corrections.

But he must go a step further, and develop right *habits* of speech by persistently repeating the correct forms and expressions. We have suggested exercises for such repetition, but not so many as may in some cases be necessary. This is a matter that must be left in large measure to the discretion of the teacher.

The value of well-directed work in grammar appears in one of the most difficult tasks that pupils in elementary schools have to do, that is, the expression of their thoughts in correct sentences. As an aid to accuracy of expression, the study of grammar may be made invaluable. A pupil will, of course, use all sorts of sentences and all sorts of phrases and clauses long before he knows what they are to be called. But unquestionably he will use them with far greater precision when he has learned to recognize each without hesitation. For drill in this kind of work, lessons may be given in selecting phrases, clauses, and various kinds of sentences from the best literature.

More than all this, no pains should be spared by the teacher in bringing pupils to a realization of what constitutes a really good sentence. Mere correctness is not always enough. A grammatically correct sentence may be intolerably stiff and involved, and it may violate all canons of good taste. The ultimate test of expression is to be found in the conversation of cultured, though not always bookish, people, and in the works of the orators, the poets, the essayists, the novelists, the historians,—in short, in every utterance, whether spoken or written, that presents a thought in the form that the occasion requires. Familiarity with the best forms of expression will supply a standard to which one's speech and writing will gradually conform. As an aid in the quick apprehension of grammatical principles, nothing will be of more service than

the habit of reading well-chosen books. No teacher of grammar can afford to neglect this incomparable help. In other words, every teacher of grammar should be, in a sense, a teacher of literature. An incidental suggestion in the classroom now and then may yield unexpectedly large results. Above all, the teacher of grammar should cultivate a form of speech at once easy and accurate, but not unduly prim or affectedly pedantic. If the teacher is careless or over-careful, pupils can hardly be blamed for imitating their daily model.

In the matter of equipment, it is obvious that some acquaintance with the history of the language will prove of great advantage to the teacher of grammar. Many of the mysteries of exceptional forms and apparent anomalies of syntax are readily understood when one has a sound, even though elementary, knowledge of the language in the early formative periods.

A FEW WORDS TO THE PUPIL

IF you will consider for a moment the language that you hear and read, you will observe that the English in use is not all of the same sort. Some of it is English of an old type, such as appears in the Bible and in the language of prayer and poetry. The older fashion of speech is preserved in such forms as "thou hast heard," "he hath wrought," "we be brethren," "he spake," and many others. These expressions are now used in what we call the solemn style, and do not appear in conversation or in ordinary writing. Hundreds of years ago, however, these were common forms. We are chiefly concerned in this book with the English of our own time.

In the works of the best modern authors we find our standard of written English. As a usual thing, one writes more carefully than one talks, and if the form of expression when first written is not satisfactory, it can be corrected. But the real language is, after all, the language that is spoken, and it is used by every one long before he learns to write. The language of books is at best only an imperfect reflection of spoken language. All language, however, whether spoken or written, is bound to conform to the principles that govern its structure. In other words, it must obey the rules of grammar.

This term calls for a word of explanation. When a speaker or writer disregards accepted forms of expression that have

been slowly taking shape for hundreds of years, we say that his language is ungrammatical. But grammar is not a mere set of rules invented for the sake of showing us how to speak and write correctly. It is, rather, a statement of the actual practice of the best speakers and writers in the use of their mother tongue.¹ What we mean, then, by saying that some one has violated a rule of grammar, is not merely that he has broken a rule found in some text-book, but that he has put words together in a way that the best speakers or writers are careful to avoid. It is with language somewhat as it is with manners. One may learn rules of deportment out of a book, but one's bad manners are condemned, not because some book pronounces them bad, but because they are at variance with accepted standards of propriety.

What you should therefore try to do is to become familiar with the best forms of English. If you have had the good fortune to live among cultured people, and have read much good literature, you have unconsciously learned in large measure what the best usage is. In your case the study of grammar will be of service mainly in confirming you in your already correct habits of speech. If, on the other hand, you have been less favored in your early associations, you will find grammar of great use in acquainting you with those forms of speech which are most worthy of imitation.

But no mere learning of rules—important though they are—will make you accurate in your use of language. That must be the result of long practice and patient attention to more than one little detail. The particular errors that you commit you may well jot down in a note-book as your atten-

¹ Historical grammar takes account of the forms of words and of sentences in earlier centuries, and shows how our present forms have grown out of them.

tion is called to them. You should then drill yourself in the use of the correct forms of expression until they seem as natural to you as the incorrect forms. The process of self-correction may be slow, but you must persist in it unless you are willing to be classed among the illiterate.

Self-interest, to say nothing of any higher motive, should lead you to spare no effort to master the principles that are involved in every sentence you speak or write. Those principles you will find outlined in the present book. The amount of text to be learned is comparatively small. The number of exercises to be worked out in application of the principles explained in the text is comparatively large. Nothing that is here presented is unimportant, and there is nothing that you can afford to leave unmastered. You need not be stiff and formal in your conversation and "talk like a book," but you should strive for that easy and natural utterance which is one of the surest marks of good breeding.

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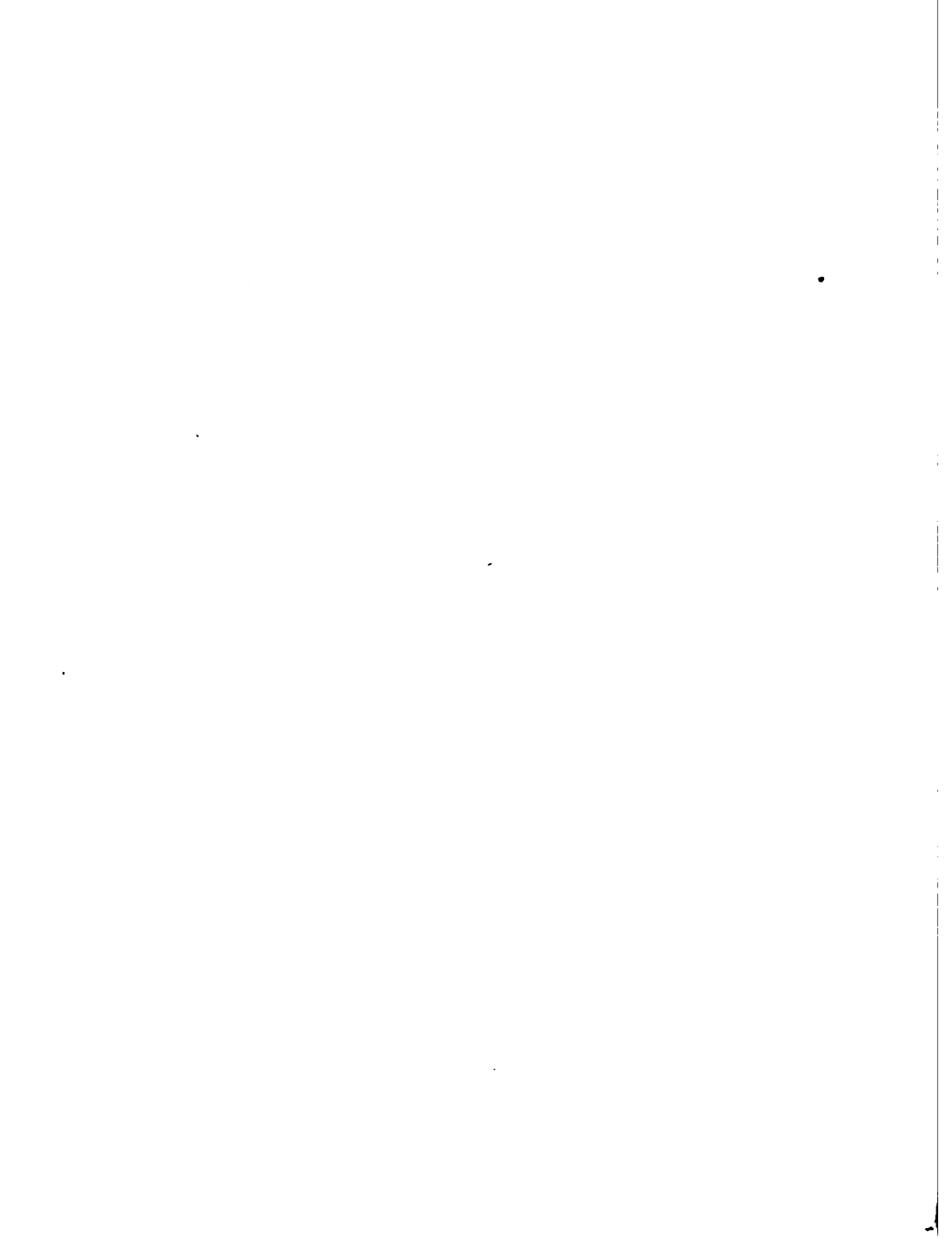
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GRAMMAR LESSONS

PART I

CHAPTER I

THE SENTENCE

In Book I a sentence was defined as *a complete thought expressed in words*. We have now to see what various kinds of sentences there are. In a sentence we may simply assert something, as, "The wind is blowing." We may ask a question, "Is the wind blowing?" We may order something done, "Come in out of the wind." We may express surprise or strong feeling, "How the wind blows!" "How sorry I am that you had to walk through such a wind!"

These kinds of sentences we will now take up and discuss more fully.

THE DECLARATIVE SENTENCE

If we write the single word, *captain*, we do not tell what we wish to say about him. Even if we write,

The captain of the steamer ———

The captain of the large ocean steamer ———

we have not told anything outright, and hence we have not made a sentence. But if we write,

“The captain stood,” we assert something about him. We can thus say various things about the captain,—

The captain stood.

The captain of the steamer stood.

The captain of the large ocean steamer stood on the deck.

The captain had a heavy gray beard.

All these sentences tell something definite about the captain.

Every sentence that tells or asserts something is called a Declarative Sentence.

Exercise 1

In the following sentences you will see that each tells you something about some person or thing:—

The country was rolling and wooded. From the foot of a long hill a wide plain extended to the sea. Far away the roar of a great waterfall was heard. The air was cool. The sky was overcast. Soon the rain began to pour down from the heavy gray clouds. After a little the wind came up. Then the sun peeped out. The sails of the black windmill went swiftly round. Up the hill came a shabby old man. He was evidently a stranger. His lips were pale and closely pressed together. But his eyes sparkled at sight of a clean, well-kept farm-house in the distance.

What person or thing does the first sentence in this exercise tell about? What does it tell about the coun-

try? Ask similar questions for each of the remaining sentences. For example, What "extended to the sea"?

Exercise 2

Before the open fire lay a large black cat. The shadows of the chairs danced like ghosts in the light of the flames curling over the great logs. But the glossy cat considered none of these things. With untiring gaze she watched a small hole behind one of the doors. Presently a faint scratching of little feet was heard behind the casement. Two bright eyes and a sharp gray nose peered out from the hole. The shadows went on dancing. The cat lay still as if asleep. The eyes came nearer. There was a sudden spring, a squeak, and then all was still again.

What lay before the open fire? What did a large black cat do? Ask similar questions for each of the remaining sentences.

Exercise 3

Reproduce a short story from your reader. Before beginning to write, think carefully about what you are to say. Write short sentences, and say something definite in each.

NOTE.—*An exercise of this sort affords a good opportunity for work in composition and in grammar. One or two of the best of the stories may be copied on the blackboard and used as additional material for training pupils in the selection of the subjects and predicates of sentences.*

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

In the sentences, "Have you any news for me?" "Do you believe this report?" "Did you see him?" we ask

questions. All such sentences are called **Interrogative**. Note the following:—

Is that our carriage? Is father coming? Do you see him? Where is he now? Do you know that other man? Which one do you mean? What is his name? Have you forgotten it? Isn't that your old gardener? What do you suppose he is doing here? Shall I ask him to come in? Is that a book in his hand? What has he to do with books?

An Interrogative Sentence is used to ask a question.

Exercise 4

Write five interrogative sentences, in each of which you ask a question about some city in your State; five in which you ask questions about the rivers of your State; and five declarative sentences in which you tell facts about the cities of your State.

THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

To illustrate sentences of another sort we may suppose that a boy has been in mischief and is called to account by his father. You can easily decide who is speaking.

Come in. Tell me where you have been. Begin at the beginning. Sit down in that chair. Do as I tell you, and make no reply. Now go on with your story. Don't speak so fast, but take time to recall just what happened. Leave me now. Go to your own room and stay there until morning. Don't make me stay there all the evening. Let me come down to supper. Let me see the procession for five minutes. Don't tease me now. Wait until you have shown that you deserve favors.

Of these sentences, some express commands, as, "Come in." Some of them make requests, as, "Let me come down to supper." Such sentences are called **Imperative**.

Find all that make requests.

An Imperative Sentence is used to express a command, a request, or an entreaty.

Exercise 5

Write ten imperative sentences, each expressing a command or a request.

THE EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE

We may feel surprise or strong emotion that may appear in the sentence; as, "How strange that is!" "How tired I am!" "What a fine fellow he was!" "How generous he always was!" "What! must I show respect to a man like that? Never!" "Get out of my way!" "Go at once!"

These may be called exclamatory sentences, but they are really declarative, interrogative, or imperative sentences, and are only for convenience put into a class by themselves.

An Exclamatory Sentence is used to express surprise or strong feeling.

Any sentence, whether declarative, interrogative, or imperative, that expresses deep feeling, may be called exclamatory. The exclamatory sentence is followed by an Exclamation Point (!).

CHAPTER II

THE SUBJECT OF THE SENTENCE

If we study any sentence closely we find that it is made up of two distinct parts. For example, in the sentence, "Clouds gather," the two parts are the word *Clouds*, about which an assertion is made, and the word *gather*, which makes the assertion about *Clouds*.

In the sentence, "Water flows," by asking "What flows?" we see that the assertion is made about *water*. In the sentences, "Robert is flying his kite. His uncle made it for him. The kite goes soaring into the air," the answer to the questions, "Who is flying his kite? Who made it for him? What goes soaring into the air?" is in each case the **Subject of the Sentence**.

That part of a sentence about which an assertion is made is the Subject.

Exercise 6

After reading the following sentences ask questions beginning with *who* or *what*. In each case the answer will be the subject of the sentence. Find the subject of each sentence:—

1. Near my home is a narrow road through the woods.
2. From one side of the road the slope descends steeply to a brook.
3. On the other side a cliff rises to a height of two hundred feet.
4. Ferns and mosses cover the rocks.
5. The brook dashes over a black bed into a deep pool.

6. Here the foam whirls round and round in great white circles.
7. Gray squirrels abound in the high woods.
8. Partridges often whirr past you from their nests.
9. Many rare wild-flowers grow in these woods.

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

In questions the words do not usually stand in the same order as they do in statements. But you can easily find the subject and the assertion made about it by changing the sentence to the declarative form. For example, the interrogative sentence, "Are the birds singing?" when changed to the declarative form, becomes "The birds are singing." By a similar change, "Are mosquitoes common here?" becomes "Mosquitoes are common here." In some cases questions are actually asked in the declarative form, the question being indicated by the inflection of the voice.

Exercise 7

After studying the following interrogative sentences, change each to the declarative form and then find the subject:—

1. Are mornings in October often frosty in your neighborhood?
2. Have the leaves on the trees changed color?
3. Have the insects all gone into winter quarters?
4. Will some of them be killed by the first frost?
5. Have the toads and turtles buried themselves in the earth?
6. Has the black bear selected his sleeping-place for the winter?

7. Will he go into it before the winter comes?
8. Are the fish trying to go down stream to the sea?

To find the subject of an interrogative sentence, first change the sentence to the declarative form.

CHAPTER III

THE PREDICATE OF THE SENTENCE

In every declarative sentence, as we have seen, we make an assertion about some person, place, or thing.

For example, "A grove stands near the old farmhouse." Here "A grove" is the subject, and "stands near the old farmhouse" is the assertion made about the subject. In the sentence, "A gray squirrel was chattering in the branches of an oak," "A gray squirrel" is the subject, and "was chattering in the branches of an oak" is the assertion made about the subject. In the sentence, "The gay little fellow lived in the hollow trunk of a chestnut-tree," what is the subject? What assertion is made about the subject? In the sentence, "He has built himself a summer-house of small leafy twigs," what is the assertion? In the sentence, "We saw him hiding some nuts," what is the assertion? In the sentence, "He was storing away food for the coming winter," what is the assertion?

That part of the sentence which makes an assertion is the Predicate.

Exercise 8

After reading the following sentences, point out the subjects and the predicates:—

1. The gray squirrel is nimble and daring.
2. His passage through the trees is almost a flight.
3. He leaps recklessly from branch to branch.
4. His career of frolic and festivity begins in the autumn.
5. His presence adds much to the pleasure of a stroller in the quiet October woods.
6. We have often studied his habits there.
7. One sunny afternoon not long ago we stepped lightly into the forest behind our house.
8. We sat down upon a big boulder near a gray squirrel's nest.
9. In a few minutes we heard the rustling of a branch.
10. Then we saw other branches swaying under the weight of the leaping squirrel.
11. The frisky little creature soon darted down to the ground near us.
12. He even took a nut out of my hand.

By asking questions with *who* you can easily find the subjects of the seventh, ninth, and tenth sentences, which are the most difficult. The remainder of the sentence in each case is the predicate.

Write five declarative sentences about *Vacation*, and in each find the subject and the predicate. Write five interrogative sentences. Change each to the declarative form, and name the subject and the predicate.

Exercise 9

Make an assertion about each of the following subjects and thus complete the sentences:—

1. The gray cat ———
2. A narrow hole ———

3. Two old rats ———
4. The cat patiently ———
5. One day the rats ———
6. The noise ———
7. At last a trap ———
8. A piece of toasted cheese ———
9. All these attractions ———
10. But some meat ———
11. Early the next morning a large brown rat ———
12. From that time the house ———

Exercise 10

Form sentences by supplying subjects for the following predicates :—

1. ——— was stopped by the conductor.
2. ——— sat preparing his lesson for the next day.
3. From the hill ——— watched every movement of the army.
4. ——— dashed high up on the rocks.
5. ——— flooded the valley with light.
6. ——— strewed the street with leaves and branches.
7. Through the window ——— crawled out into the street.
8. ——— ran rapidly down the road.
9. From a high rock ——— flew to a dead pine.
10. Across the bridge ——— marched in single file.
11. In the early morning ——— sailed for Liverpool.
12. ——— stood on the bank of the river.
13. ——— had a fishing-rod and a basket.
14. For a while ——— caught nothing.

15. —— brought up a big fish.
16. —— did not succeed in drawing it to shore.
17. —— snapped his rod in two pieces.
18. —— saw the broken rod and the fish go down stream.

CHAPTER IV

THE SUBJECT AND THE PREDICATE

Exercise 11

In the following groups of words select the complete sentences, and in every case name the subject and the predicate. Unless a group of words contains both a subject and a predicate¹ you may know that it is not a complete sentence:—

1. Found a very tall oak-tree.
2. He noticed a flag waving in the air.
3. Went farther and farther from home.
4. A gust of wind blew off his hat.
5. Caught it after a chase.
6. A brook in the meadow.
7. He saw a bright flower.
8. Then a red apple drew his attention.
9. On the garden wall.
10. Spied his sister in the distance.
11. Walked together into the fields.
12. Home with their father in a carriage.

Make complete sentences out of such groups of words as are not already sentences.

¹ Even such expressions as "You here?" "I a cheat?" clearly imply the full form with the predicate: "*Are* you here?" "*Am* I a cheat?" In conversation we often omit the subject or the predicate: "Who did it?" "I (did it)." "What did you do then?" "(I) went home."

When a sentence contains but one subject and one predicate it is called a Simple Sentence.

Exercise 12

Use the following words as subjects in sentences:—

Steamship, engine, engineer, factory, storm, waterfall, flag, army, soldier, tent, chieftain, attack, explorer, North Pole, doctor, judge, governor, gentleman, Pilgrims, settlers, stranger, minister, scholar, people, friends, cattle, horses, fair, foot-ball, boat-race.

Exercise 13

Use the following words as predicates in sentences:—

Have, grow, promise, give, go, ride, speak, see, notice, help, ask, carry, pass, drive, leave, sit, reply, refuse, come, learn, prepare, bring, finish, find, make, knock, break, sweep, fill.

NOTE.—In most of the exercises we have used the simple forms of the verb. But the pupil should be encouraged to use as great a variety of verb-forms as possible.

CHAPTER V

THE NOUN

In all our speaking and writing we are constantly using the names of persons, places, or things. In fact, we give a name to every object that we know.

Exercise 14

What names are used in the following sentences:—

1. Last year we bought an old abandoned farm in New Hampshire.
2. The place was overgrown with weeds.

3. In one field we cut several large loads of thistles.
4. We found that the thistles had not stopped for the fences.
5. Burdocks and mullein stalks and golden-rods were everywhere.
6. At present all the farm-buildings are in bad repair.
7. The house is a quaint, rambling old place.
8. On three sides of the house are verandas.
9. From every window the views are enchanting.

Point out the subject and the predicate of each of the sentences above. Draw a straight line under every name used as a subject. Write in columns all the names in the sentences.

Exercise 15

Write the names of six kinds of animals; of six kinds of trees; of six kinds of fruit; of six kinds of vegetables; of six kinds of groceries; of six countries; of six lakes; of six towns; of six great men. Using your lists, write six declarative and six interrogative sentences.

All names of persons, places, or things are nouns; or, more briefly,

A word used as a name is a Noun.

Every word in a sentence, whether spoken or written, plays a definite part, and is therefore called a **Part of Speech**. There are eight parts of speech—Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. The noun is the first part of speech that we have to consider.

COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS

When you say, "A man came across the street to speak to us," no one can tell from your language ex-

actly whom you mean, for there are so many men that the word *man* does not point out any particular one. But if you say, "Henry Wadsworth came across the street to speak to us," you plainly indicate that you have in mind only one individual.

The word *man* is a name given to any one of a large number of individuals of the same kind or class. It is a name common to all men. We therefore call it a common name or a **Common Noun**.

But the name *Henry Wadsworth* points out some particular person. A single person—perhaps only one in the world—owns that name. It is his property. We therefore call it a **Proper¹ Noun**.

In the same way we use the common name *dog* to refer to a certain kind of animal, but *Prince*, *Rover*, or some other proper name if we wish to refer to some particular dog. The word *river* may be applied to any river in the world, but Potomac is applied to that particular river which flows between Maryland and Virginia.

A proper noun may consist of more than one word; as, Rocky Mountains, Ohio River, Atlantic Ocean.

Exercise 16

Write your teacher's name; your own name; the names of six persons living near your home. Are these names common to a class of persons or do they belong to individuals?

Every proper name has a general name or class name corresponding to it, for every individual belongs

¹ The word *proper* is derived from a Latin word meaning *one's own*.

to some class of persons or objects. For example, the class name of Napoleon is *man*, of Russia is *country*, of Paris is *city*, and so forth. A general name or class name is one shared by several persons or objects, and is of course a common noun.

Exercise 17

Copy the following proper names, and write opposite each an appropriate class name:—

New York, California, Vesuvius, Danube, Yosemite, Erie, December, Cuba, Texas, Monday, Memorial Day, Abraham Lincoln, Longfellow, George III, Columbus, U. S. Grant, The Youth's Companion, A Tale of Two Cities.

A Common Noun is a name common to all objects of the same class; or, more briefly,

A Common Noun is a general name.

A Proper Noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing; or, more briefly,

A Proper Noun is an individual name.

Exercise 18

Indicate which of the following nouns may be used as common or class names, and which as proper or individual names:—

Country, river, state, ocean, city, air, water, fire, apple, plant, tree, shrub, fruit, bird, beast, sea, capital, governor, Washington, Sunday, July, England, Albany, mountains, Rocky Mountains, road, meadow, Thursday, farmers, hay, cyclone, buildings, barns, fences, monument, Ohio, Texas,

engineer, falls, Niagara Falls, mills, George Mills, bank, counter, land, Cleveland.

CHAPTER VI

THE PRONOUN

In the preceding lesson you learned that every person, place, or thing has a name. But suppose that every time you wished to refer to yourself you had to use your own name, *George, Frank, Ethel, or Helen*, in place of saying *I* or *me*. We should feel the same difficulty if we had to repeat your name every time we now use *you* or *your*. Note the following sentences:—

The writer remembers with pleasure one ruddy-faced Montana farmer. The farmer was a graduate of Harvard University and of the Harvard Law School, but here the farmer was with the farmer's trousers tucked into the farmer's boot-legs, helping to cultivate the farmer's corn, or looking after the farmer's herds upon the farmer's broad acres. The farmer was almost the ideal of a genuine, hearty, educated country gentleman.

You observe that in this short paragraph the name *farmer* or *farmer's* occurs nine times. This repeated use of the same word is extremely unpleasant, and if there were no way of preventing such repetitions our language would be very clumsy. But in this passage we can easily avoid the frequent use of the word *farmer* by putting *he* in its place, or by putting *his* in the place of *farmer's*. With the suggested changes

in mind, read the paragraph, and you will find that it sounds much more natural.

All the words that take the place of nouns are called **Pronouns**.¹ We have, therefore, the definition:—

A word used instead of a noun is a Pronoun.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Exercise 19

In the following sentences study the words in italics. Tell what noun each of these words stands for:—

Just then Sarah Maud came up the back-stairs, so radiant with joy that Peter could have pinched *her* with a clear conscience. Carol gave *them* both a joyful welcome. “But where is Baby Larry?” *she* cried. “Didn’t *he* come?”

“Larry! Larry!” *they* all cried. Susan knew that *he* had come, for *she* remembered scolding *him* for catching *his* toe in the door-mat and tripping over *it* as they came in.

“Are *you* sure Larry was with *you*?” asked Uncle Jack.

“Yes, *I* am,” said Susan.

“Oh, well, cheer up!” cried Uncle Jack. “*I* think *he* is not lost—only mislaid. *I* will go and find *him* before *you* can say ‘Jack Robinson.’”

We note here that certain little words, such as *I, me, you, he, his, him, she, her, it, they, and them*, are used in the place of nouns, and are therefore pronouns.

What question does Uncle Jack first address to

¹ The word *pro-noun* means for a noun.

Susan? In her answer what pronoun does she use instead of her own name? The pronoun *I* is used in place of the name of the person speaking, and is said to be in the **first person**.

In asking Susan a question, what pronoun does Uncle Jack use instead of Susan's name? The pronoun *you*, which takes the place of the name of the person spoken to, is in the **second person**.

When Uncle Jack says to Susan, "*I* will go and find *him* before *you* can say 'Jack Robinson,'" what pronoun does he use in place of Larry's name? *He* and *him* are in the **third person** because they take the place of the name of the person spoken of.

A pronoun is in the **first person** when it stands for the person or persons speaking.

A pronoun is in the **second person** when it stands for the person or persons spoken to.

A pronoun is in the **third person** when it stands for one or more persons or things spoken of.

A pronoun the form of which shows whether the first person, the second person, or the third person is meant is a Personal Pronoun.

Exercise 20

Select the personal pronouns in the following paragraph. Give the person of each pronoun, and point out the noun for which it stands:—

I am sure you would like my dog. He came to me early one morning five years ago. I found him sitting patiently before the front door, waiting for his breakfast. He did not

bark nor whine, but he sat up quietly and held out his fore-paws as if he knew just what to do. We watched him for a time before we opened the door. On seeing us he held up one paw for us to shake and strolled out to the kitchen. The cook scowled a little when she saw him coming, but she adopted him at once, and now always takes him with her when she goes to market.

CHAPTER VII

THE ADJECTIVE

If you say, "I saw a horse trotting along the hill-side," you tell us nothing about the kind of horse you saw. But if you add that it was a *large, black* horse, you help us to form a more definite idea. The words *large* and *black* thus make clearer the meaning of the noun *horse* by describing what kind of horse you saw. In the same way the word *stream*, if taken alone, conveys no clear picture to the mind, but the words *winding* stream, *rapid* stream, *deep, narrow* stream do. The words, *winding, rapid, deep, narrow*, describe the noun *stream* in such a way as to aid us in forming a distinct mental picture. Thus we see that the word *stream* merely names an object, and that the words, *winding, rapid, deep, narrow*, add new meaning by describing the object. Such words as these are used with nouns and pronouns to modify their meaning.

A word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is an Adjective.

The adjective is called a **modifier** because it modifies, that is, changes somewhat, the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

THE ARTICLE

Two peculiar little words, *a* or *an* (*a* being a shortened form of *an*) and *the* are often used in spoken and written language. Although called **articles**, they are really adjectives, because they modify the meaning of nouns. *The* is called the **Definite Article**, because it points out some definite or particular object. *A* or *an* is called the **Indefinite Article** because it does not refer to any definite or particular object.

Exercise 21

Select from the following sentences all the adjectives, and tell what nouns they modify:—

1. The modest little cottage overlooked the white sea-beach.
2. In the low doorway stood a young girl.
3. "Do you think we shall have a stormy night, father?" said she to the old man by her side.
4. Before answering he looked up at the heavy, inky clouds.
5. He felt the thick mist driving across the headland.
6. "Yes, daughter," was the quiet answer. "See that great wave dash over the breakwater. The fishermen will have a hard pull to get home."

Exercise 22

Use adjectives to modify the following nouns:—

Shoemaker, book, house, chair, picture, village, mountain, room, curtain, snow, mirror, story, pin, hair, New York, song,

bundle, shower, weather, damage, mill, reception, escape, journey, apples.

Exercise 23

Use each of the following words as adjectives to modify the meaning of some noun:—

Hard, great, kind-hearted, good, bright, polite, proud, old, little, big, wrong, poor, rich, red, white, blue, deep, wide, high, long.

Exercise 24

Use each of the following words as adjectives in a simple declarative sentence, and point out the subject and the predicate of each sentence:—

Square, round, thin, yellow, soft, woolly, feathery, cold, rude, flat, rough, low, marshy, stony, ragged.

CHAPTER VIII

THE ADJECTIVE PHRASE

It is not always desirable, and sometimes not possible, to describe an object satisfactorily by using adjectives only. We therefore employ groups of words, as in the following sentences:—

1. Beautiful violets are blooming.
2. Those are violets of rare beauty.
3. The violets in our garden are very fragrant.
4. The violets near the hedgerow are withered.
5. The violets behind the arbor are yellow.

In the first sentence the adjective *beautiful* modifies *violets*. But in each of the remaining sentences a group of words, used like an adjective, modifies *violets*. For example, in the second sentence *violets of rare beauty* are pointed out; in the third, the *violets in our garden*; in the fourth, the *violets near the hedgerow*; and in the last, the *violets behind the arbor*.

Each of these groups of words, used as an adjective to describe or limit the meaning of the noun *violets*, is called a **Phrase**. Hence—

A phrase that modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is an Adjective Phrase.

Exercise 25

What phrases are used below to modify the meaning of *orange*? of *dandelion*?

1. The orange in your hand.
2. The orange of golden hue.
3. The orange on the tree.
4. The orange of delicious flavor.
5. The orange from Florida.
6. The orange in the grocer's wagon.
7. The dandelion along the roadside.
8. The dandelion in the meadow.
9. The dandelion near the river.
10. The dandelion on the lawn.
11. The dandelion under the tree.
12. The dandelion beside the log.

Find a suitable phrase to modify the meaning of each of the following nouns:—

THE POSSESSIVE FORM OF THE NOUN 23

Lumber, house, town, street, city, oak, Indian, banana, steamer.

NOTE.—*If the teacher so desires, the study of the preposition and the prepositional phrase (p. 51) may be taken up in connection with this chapter.*

Exercise 26

Use in a sentence each of the following phrases to modify the meaning of some noun:—

On the tree; under the table; in the cellar; over the door; at the station; at the window; beside the lake; of easy temper; with green spectacles; with bright, twinkling eyes; from China; from the best milliner in Paris; in comfortable circumstances.

Observe that *a phrase does not contain a subject and a predicate.*

CHAPTER IX

THE POSSESSIVE FORM OF THE NOUN

We have already seen that adjectives are used to modify the meaning of nouns. We have now to learn that certain forms of *nouns* and *pronouns* are sometimes used as noun modifiers. We find illustrations in the following sentences:—

1. The carpenter's tools are again mislaid.
2. It was James's fault.
3. That man's temper is always disturbing our workmen.
4. Their foreman presented a complaint at the office.

Whose tools are mentioned in the first sentence? *Carpenter's* modifies the meaning of *tools*. Whose fault is pointed out in the second sentence? What word, then, modifies the meaning of *fault*? Of *temper*? Of *workmen*? Of *foreman*?

Our in the third sentence and *their* in the fourth are possessive forms of personal pronouns.

You will notice that the **Apostrophe** (') and the letter **s** are added to the word *carpenter* to indicate whose tools are meant. You will notice, also, that each of the other nouns indicating possession is treated in the same way.

If you are not careful you may confuse some expressions, such as the following:—

1. The boy's boat.
2. The boys' boat.
3. The soldier's camp-fire.
4. The soldiers' camp-fire.

When we write, "The boy's boat," we indicate that only one boy owns the boat; but when we write, "The boys' boat," we signify that more than one boy possesses the boat. In the expressions, "The robin's song," "The robins' song," is one robin meant or more than one?

When the noun denoting possession names **but one** object the apostrophe and the letter **s** ('s) are added to indicate possession. The word thus formed is said to have the **Possessive Form**. When the word denoting

THE POSSESSIVE FORM OF THE NOUN 25

possession names more than one object and ends in s, the apostrophe alone is added to form the possessive; but when such a word does not end in s, both the apostrophe and s are needed to form the possessive.

Exercise 27

Write the possessive form of the following words:—

Bird, birds, lion, lions, man, men, woman, women, fox, foxes, mouse, mice, goose, geese, pony, ponies, cow, cows, tiger, tigers, Indian, Spaniard, merchant, farmer, lambs, Frenchman, citizens, captain, troop, senators, officers, clerk, serpent, animal, painter, Frank, duke, friends, bride, father, boy, cousin, cashier, author, uncle, aunt.

Exercise 28

In the following sentences select the nouns that denote possession, and show what words they modify. In each case tell whether the possessive form indicates one object or more than one:—

1. Hawthorne's "Scarlet Letter" brought him great fame.
2. Have you ever read about Mr. Winkle's experience on skates?
3. Do you think he profited much by Sam Weller's assistance?
4. "Tom Brown's School Days" describes the life of a boy at Rugby.
5. "Sindbad the Sailor" is one of many strange stories in "The Arabian Nights' Entertainments."
6. Irving's best known tales are "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow."

7. The President's annual message is received by Congress in December.

8. The boys' playground was a spacious one.

NOTE.—*This and many other exercises may well be used as dictation lessons.*

CHAPTER X

THE APPOSITIVE

As already explained, the noun and the pronoun may be modified by an adjective, an adjective phrase, and the possessive form of the noun or pronoun. Sometimes the noun and the pronoun have still another modifier, which we will now study. Examples of its use occur in the following sentences:—

1. Kane, the Arctic explorer, had many wonderful adventures.

2. Sir Walter Scott, "the Wizard of the North," wrote "Kenilworth."

3. Alexander Hamilton, a great statesman, was killed by Aaron Burr.

4. We boys enjoyed the lecture on Hamilton.

In the first sentence the word *explorer* is added to the noun *Kane* to explain who he was. What word in the second sentence explains who *Sir Walter Scott* was? What word in the third sentence explains who *Alexander Hamilton* was? What word in the fourth sentence explains the meaning of the pronoun *we*?

Words used in this way to describe or explain the meaning of nouns or pronouns are called Appositives,¹ and are said to be in apposition with the nouns or the pronouns which they describe or explain.

Exercise 29

In the following sentences why are the nouns in italics appositives? With what noun or pronoun is each of them in apposition, and why?

1. Brom Bones, the *hero* of the country round, was a powerful rival.

2. Nataline, the light-keeper's *daughter*, fought the darkness like a soldier.

3. Robert, the *keeper* of the lighthouse, made ready the clockwork for the night.

4. That old sleeper, the *woodchuck*, awakes in March and stays out in all sorts of weather.

5. Thomas Newcome artfully invited Barnes, his *nephew*, to dinner.

6. Last summer we visited Owl's Head, a little seaside *resort*, not far from Gloucester.

7. Jo, the *guide*, was a good canoeman.

8. The cook's wages, forty *dollars* a month, were ample for his needs.

9. Thousands of birds, *sea-fowl*, nested there.

10. That difficult march led us through a sublime waste, a *wilderness* of mountains and pine-forests.

A group of words containing an appositive and its modifier or modifiers is called an Appositive Phrase. Appositive phrases are usually set off from the rest of the sentence by commas, but if the connection is very close the commas are sometimes omitted.

¹ From a Latin word meaning to put near.

Exercise 30

Select the appositive phrases from the sentences in the preceding exercise.

Exercise 31

In each of the following groups of words which word is the appositive, and why? Put each of these groups of words into a written sentence. Be careful to separate each appositive phrase from the rest of the sentence by commas:—

The captain, a weather-beaten veteran; the porter, a jolly fellow; a refined-looking man, a teacher; a bent figure, a mere shadow; the carriage, a well-worn vehicle; a raw-boned horse, a vicious-looking beast; our landlady, a severe-faced matron of fifty.

CHAPTER XI

THE SIMPLE SUBJECT AND THE COMPLETE SUBJECT

We have learned that *the subject of a sentence is that about which an assertion is made*. The complete subject may consist of a single word, but this is not always the case. Note the following sentences:—

1. Ponies were performing in the circus-ring.
2. Shetland ponies were performing in the circus-ring.
3. Black Shetland ponies were performing in the circus-ring.
4. Three black ponies from the Shetland Islands were performing in the circus-ring.

In the first sentence the subject is the single word *ponies*; in the second sentence it consists of the words

Shetland ponies; in the third sentence, of the words *Black Shetland ponies*; and in the fourth, of the words *Three black ponies from the Shetland Islands*.

By looking again at the second sentence we find that the subject, "Shetland ponies," is made up of the noun *ponies* and its adjective modifier *Shetland*. We call *ponies* the **Simple Subject** and *Shetland ponies* the **Complete Subject**. In the third sentence *ponies* is the simple subject, while *ponies* and its modifiers, *black* and *Shetland*, together form the complete subject. In the fourth sentence what is the noun that is used as the simple subject? What are its adjective modifiers? Add them to the simple subject, and you form the complete subject.

The Simple Subject is a noun or a pronoun.

The Complete Subject consists of the simple subject and its modifiers.

Exercise 32

In each of the following sentences what is the simple subject? What is the complete subject?

Yellowstone Park in Wyoming is a great national playground thousands of square miles in area. It is full of hot springs and geysers and other wonderful sights. People from all parts of the world flock here to make the tour of the Park. No railroads are allowed in the Park, but every sight-seer has to drive or walk or ride on horseback. Great coaches holding a dozen people and drawn by four horses take you in less than a week to the most important points. The smaller carriages with two horses and with seats for only four or five people are

more comfortable. Very little rain falls in summer, and the travelled roads are thick with dust by the end of August. But the sight of a geyser spouting a great jet of water a hundred feet into the air makes one forget all discomfort.

Exercise 33

Copy the sentences of Exercise 1, p. 2, putting a single straight line under the simple subject and a wavy line with the letter *s.* under the modifier of the simple subject, whether this modifier is a word or a phrase. For example,—

The country to the east was rolling and wooded.

CHAPTER XII

A REVIEW

Define a declarative sentence. Write six declarative sentences, using in each an adjective to modify the subject. Define an interrogative sentence. Write six interrogative sentences and change them to the declarative form. Define an imperative sentence; an exclamatory sentence. Write five imperative sentences.

What is a noun? A common noun? A proper noun? Make two lists, one containing ten common nouns and the other ten proper nouns.

Write three sentences, each containing a noun in the possessive form to modify a noun used as a simple subject. In each of these sentences mark the subject and its modifier, as indicated in Exercise 33. Remember that the possessive form of the noun is used like an adjective.

What is a pronoun? What is the difference between

a noun and a pronoun? What is the advantage in having pronouns? Name six personal pronouns and use each of them in a declarative sentence.

What is an adjective? Write five declarative sentences, each containing an adjective. What is an adjective phrase? Write five declarative sentences, each containing an adjective phrase.

Write five sentences, in each of which you use a noun in apposition. What is the difference between the simple subject and the complex subject?

Exercise 34, for Review

Point out the nouns and the adjectives in Exercise 29 (p. 27).

CHAPTER XIII

THE VERB

We have discussed the subject and the predicate of a sentence. We are now ready to study the word or phrase used in the predicate to make the assertion.

1. The fisherman went to the river.
2. He rowed his boat down the stream.
3. He threw his hook into the water.
4. In a few minutes he caught a large bass.

In the first sentence we make an assertion about the fisherman. We assert that he *went* somewhere. In the second, we assert that he *rowed* something; in the third, that he *threw* something; and in the fourth, that he *caught* something.

What word is used to make an assertion in the first of the sentences above? In the second? In the third? In the fourth?

1. The robin comes in early spring.
2. He builds his nest near our house.
3. He sings a cheerful song.

What word in the first sentence asserts something about the robin? In the second? In the third?

Exercise 35

Find the asserting word in each of the following sentences, and draw two horizontal lines under it:—

At last came a very wet summer. The streams rose high. The hay-stacks floated down the valley. The hail cut all the grape-vines to pieces. A black blight killed most of the corn. Yet Fritz saw little of the trouble. Most of the wet days he spent beside the roaring fire. There he worked quietly turning the great roasts. One day, however, he crept out over the hill. Then he saw for the first time the awful destruction.

Exercise 36

Use each of the following words in an oral sentence to make an assertion about an appropriate subject:—

Take, say, run, hear, dance, spend, lead, do, carry, march, bring, work, watch, blow, buy, see, throw, walk, sell, shut, melt, shake, wind, promise, spin, catch, creep, sweep, leave, wave, pull, ring.

A word used to make an assertion is a Verb.

Exercise 37

Use an appropriate verb to make an assertion about each of the following words used as subjects:—

Ant, bees, owls, fox, sheep, fish, wheat, corn, coal, ice, sunshine, clouds, sky, moon, garden, blossoms, gold, pepper, pencil, rocket, rocks, moss.

CHAPTER XIV

THE VERB-PHRASE

A verb does not always consist of a single word. Note the following sentences:—

1. The dog chased the rabbit.
2. The dog was chasing the rabbit.
3. The dog has chased the rabbit.
4. The dog has been chasing the rabbit.
5. The dog had chased the rabbit.
6. The dog had been chasing the rabbit.

What single word makes the assertion about the dog in the first sentence? What group of words in the second sentence? What group in the third? What in the fourth? In the fifth? In the sixth?

A group of words used as a verb is a Verb-Phrase.

We call the verb-phrase a verb just as if it were a single word.

Exercise 38

Select the verbs and the verb-phrases in the following sentences and also the noun or pronoun used as the subject of each:—

A heavy sea had come up in the night. The wind freshened and finally blew a gale. The outlook was not encouraging. Every one knew that the islands with their dangerous rocks were somewhere near, but no one could decide exactly where the ship had drifted. The steerage passengers had mostly gone below, for the decks were constantly flooded. But some preferred to be where they could save themselves in case of accident. Happily, after the storm had lasted fourteen hours, the wind began to go down. The waves still rolled high, but they did not wash everything off the decks. After dinner the passengers crept outside. They found that all the boats but one had gone overboard, the rails were bent and broken, and the funnels were coated with salt to the tops. But the danger was past, and every one could enjoy the sight of the sunlight flashing on the foaming waves.

Exercise 39

Use in declarative sentences the following verb-phrases:—

Has been writing; is sleeping; might have gone; may be heard; had gone; would have seen; had been hurt; could have driven; were shouting; had fallen; should have written; can be seen; will be known.

Exercise 40

Use in interrogative sentences the verb-phrases in the preceding exercise.

Exercise 41, for Review

Draw two straight lines under each of the verbs in the following sentences, and one straight line under each noun or pronoun used as the subject of a verb:—

Hans struggled on. The sun was sinking, but its descent seemed to bring no coolness. The leaden weight of the dead air pressed upon his brow and heart, but the goal was near. He saw the cataract of the Golden River springing from the hillside, scarcely five hundred feet above him. He paused for a moment to breathe, and sprang on to complete his task.

CHAPTER XV

THE TRANSITIVE VERB

We have found that *a verb is a word used to make an assertion*. Usually the verb asserts *action*, as, "The boy drove the horse." Note also the following sentences:—

1. For several minutes the hawk wheeled in wide circles.
2. Then with a sudden swoop she caught a fish and carried it off in her claws.

In the first sentence the verb *wheeled* asserts action; in the second sentence the verbs *caught* and *carried* also assert action. But there is a difference in the use of the verbs in these sentences. In the first sentence the verb asserts *action only*, while in the second sentence the verbs assert action and also take objects to complete their meaning: she *caught a fish* and *carried it off* in her claws.

Exercise 42

Use in sentences the following verbs, which assert action and take an object to complete their meaning:—

Wish, pay, make, mend, finish, take, have, do, carry, touch, throw, buy, ask, lift, bring, lose, hear, build, weave, lay, say, cut see, raise.

Exercise 43

In the following sentences name the verbs that assert action and take an object. Point out the nouns or pronouns that are the subjects of the verbs:—

1. When we saw the shore Mildred drew a breath of relief.
2. I tossed up my cap, and she waved her handkerchief.
3. The rain had soaked our clothing and chilled us through.
4. A stiff breeze drove our boat rapidly into the harbor.
5. At times our ears caught the roar of the breakers.
6. With much difficulty we anchored our boat.
7. A little later we reached the land in safety.
8. Friends and even strangers welcomed us.
9. They laughed and cried to see that we were safe.

A verb that asserts action and requires an object to complete its meaning is a Transitive¹ Verb.

Exercise 44

In the following sentences fill out the blanks with transitive verbs, and name the objects:—

1. In spring the farmer —— his field.
2. He —— various kinds of seed.
3. In July he —— his hay and —— it to the barn.
4. The gardener —— the gate for our party.

¹ From a Latin word meaning *to pass over*. That is, the action of the verb is thought of as *passing over* to the object so as to affect it.

5. We —— the humming of busy bees among the flowers.
6. We greatly —— our visit to the garden.
7. We —— some roses to Mabel.
8. We —— her sitting in the shade of a beautiful maple.
9. She —— a thrilling story.
10. She —— us for bringing her the roses.

CHAPTER XVI

THE INTRANSITIVE VERB

When we say, "Henry made a snowball," the verb *made* asserts action, and takes the object *snowball*. Hence *made* is a transitive verb. But when we say, "Snow flies," the verb *flies* fully expresses the action, and does not require an object to make its meaning clear. Since the verb does not require an object it cannot be a transitive verb, but is called **Intransitive**. We have, then, the definition:—

A verb that expresses action and does not require an object to complete its meaning is an Intransitive Verb.

Exercise 45

Explain why the words in italics in the following exercise are intransitive verbs:—

1. Our boat *floated* lazily in the quiet bay.
2. Not a ripple *played* on the glassy surface of the sea.
3. Birds drowsily *twittered* in the grove near by.
4. Fleecy white clouds *scudded* here and there.

5. Suddenly the sky *darkened* and the wind *arose*.
6. Almost without warning a furious storm *came* up.
7. A solemn silence *fell* upon the crew of rough boatmen.
8. For four or five hours they *struggled* with the great waves.
9. Then the rain *slackened* and the sunshine *burst* through the clouds.

In this exercise all of the verbs, though intransitive, express action. But there are some intransitive verbs that do not express action. If, for instance, we say, "The tired horseman rests," the intransitive verb *rests* asserts that the horseman is in a certain **state or condition**. Such verbs are sometimes called Verbs of Rest; as, for example, *abound, dwell, lie, pause, remain, repose, stay, stop, tarry*, and so on.

Some intransitive verbs assert State or Condition.

Exercise 46

Arrange the following words in two columns, one containing those which may be used as transitive verbs, and the other containing those which may be used as intransitive verbs:—

Take, lay, wander, select, like, give, go, need, bake, sink, flatter, make, chase, keep, place, touch, fasten, stretch, reach, swing, turn, ride, march, sleep, stay, smile, listen, choose, climb, ask, knock, shudder, bind, fall, hold, bring, find, point, spend.

Exercise 47

Write six sentences, each containing one of the transitive verbs found in Exercise 46; also six with intransitive verbs found in Exercise 46.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS 39

Remember that for a verb to be transitive it must assert action, and must take some object to complete its meaning. "The cow drank water." Why is *drank* a transitive verb? "The cow drank." Why is *drank* an intransitive verb here?

It is plain that many verbs may be transitive or intransitive, according to the way they are used. In general, the way a word is used determines the grammatical name we apply to it.

Exercise 48

Which of the verbs in the following sentences are transitive and which intransitive? In every case give reasons for your answer:—

Janet lived on a rocky island off the coast of Maine. Her father was a fisherman. Early every morning he would go away in his boat to his favorite fishing-ground. Janet stayed at home on the island and did the work of the little house. The days went very slowly for the young girl. But she studied all the shells and strange creatures cast up by the sea. She gathered delicate seaweeds and raised brilliantly hued flowers in the scanty soil near the house. One day her father came in with an unopened letter in his hand. He carefully cut the envelope and painfully spelled the longer words. At first he hardly grasped the meaning. Then he lifted the lid of an old chest and dropped the letter in. For a time he said nothing. At last he looked at his daughter and said, "Janet, your aunt from Boston is coming to-morrow. She has promised a thousand dollars for your education."

CHAPTER XVII

THE COPULA

You have learned that *a transitive verb asserts action and requires an object to complete its meaning*. You have also learned that *some intransitive verbs assert action, but do not require objects to complete their meaning*; and that *others assert state or condition*. You have now to consider a peculiar kind of intransitive verb that of itself expresses no definite idea. For example, if you say, "The country is," you have the subject *country* and the predicate *is*, but your sentence is evidently unfinished. If, however, you add the adjective *flat* to describe country, your assertion is complete. The sentence, "Napoleon was," conveys little meaning, but "Napoleon was a great general" expresses something definite. The noun *general* in the predicate explains *Napoleon* in the subject. In each of these sentences the verb requires the additional word to complete its meaning.

For further illustration, read the following examples:—

1. His figure was slight.
2. His shoulders were narrow.
3. His eyes were blue.

In the first sentence what is the connecting verb? What word in the predicate does it connect with its subject *figure*? In the second sentence what word in the predicate does the verb *were* connect with its sub-

ject? In the third, what word in the predicate does the verb *were* connect with its subject? Such verbs as *was* and *were* in the sentences above are called **Copulas**, because in every instance they are used to connect some word in the predicate with the subject.

You will observe that, although the verb in each of these three sentences makes the assertion, the meaning is incomplete without the words *slight*, *narrow*, and *blue*. These words, called **Complements**, form a part of the predicate, but they also describe or explain the subject. The office of the verb in each case is to connect these completing words with the subject.

Some intransitive verbs may be followed by nouns or adjectives explaining the subjects. Such verbs include the Copula and Copulative verbs.

Nouns and adjectives thus used are called noun complements or adjective complements.

NOTE.—*The teacher should impress upon the pupil the fact that the function of the complement is to complete the meaning of the sentence. The old word complement is no longer used, but it might help to bring out more clearly the essential meaning of the term complement. So, too, the term copula should be associated in the pupil's mind with the familiar word couple. The copula of a sentence is a verb which couples or joins one or more words with the subject. A copulative verb is one that behaves like the copula in joining one or more words with the subject.*

Exercise 49

In the following sentences the words in italics are copulas or copulative verbs. Explain by the aid of the following model why

each is a copula or a copulative verb. For instance, in the sentence, "Nathan Hale *was* a spy," *was* is a copula because it joins the noun complement *spy* to the subject *Nathan Hale* :—

1. The captain *was* brave and handsome.
2. Miss Quigley *appeared* very grim on an old white pony.
3. My aunt's horse *was* so old that he *had become* gray.
4. Nothing *could be* more pleasant and cordial than Sir Barnes's manner.
5. Gladstone *was* an English statesman.
6. The animal that *seemed* so tame *grew* suddenly fierce and vicious.
7. If you *prove* faithful to others they *will become* and *remain* your friends.
8. He *grew* rich very fast.
9. The sky *became* clear again.
10. That remark *holds* true even yet.

Exercise 50

Put the following copulative verbs into short sentences :—

Appear, seem, become, look, sound, taste, feel, grow, prove, remain.

Exercise 51

Complete each of the following sentences with a suitable noun or adjective complement. Then explain the use of each verb by telling what noun or adjective complement it requires to describe or explain the subject. In each of your explanations name the noun or adjective in the predicate, and the subject which it describes or explains :—

1. The fall of snow has been _____
2. The wind last night was _____

3. Even yet the air feels ——
4. This morning the country roads appear ——
5. All the trains are ——
6. It will be —— before they can run again.
7. The station-agent is ——
8. His own family is —— to get home.
9. The stories that one hears sound ——
10. Some think that the roads will remain —— for days.

Exercise 52

Copy the sentences that you completed in the foregoing exercise, marking the subjects and their modifiers as before. Put two straight lines under the verb and three under its complement, as follows:—

The soldiers were brave.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE PREDICATE NOUN

“The hunter was a Canadian.” The copula *was* connects the subject *hunter* with the noun complement *Canadian*, which describes *hunter*. The noun complement is called a **Predicate Noun**.

A noun that follows a copula or a copulative verb and describes or explains its subject is a Predicate Noun.¹

Exercise 53

In the following sentences select the copulas. Explain also the use of the predicate nouns in italics, following the model given in Exercise 49:—

¹ See also page 119.

1. This was the last *session* of the school for the year.
2. The season was *spring*.
3. The *weather* was glorious.
4. All was *silence* for a long time.
5. Such a spot is no *place* for a camp.
6. The dark, moving shapes were *Indians* on the trail.
7. The warrior at the head of the band was the *chief*.
8. His head-dress was a *tuft* of feathers.

Exercise 54

Use in sentences some of the following words as predicate nouns:—

Village, traveller, fame, beads, mountains, horses, war, pipe, prairie, coward, country, rifle, children, statue, pine-tree, journey, smoke, neighbor, soldier, trade, whirlwind, morning, tent, grass, furs, robes, blankets, occupation, table-cloth, cheese, venison, trail, camp, trader, chief, moccasin.

Note that in interrogative sentences, such as "Who [What] am I?" "Who [What] is he?" the word following the copula is the subject of the verb.

CHAPTER XIX

THE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE

In Chapter XVII we learned that the complement of the copula or the copulative verb is sometimes an adjective.

An adjective that follows the copula or a copulative verb and describes its subject is a Predicate Adjective.

An adjective phrase may be used as an adjective complement. For example, "Bolton was *in excellent condition*."

Exercise 55

Why are the words in italics in the following sentences predicate adjectives? Point out and explain each *copula* and each *copulative verb* :—

The October days grew more and more *frosty*. The woods turned *golden* and *crimson* and *scarlet*. Every man in the party became *eager* for an early start. After some delay everything was *ready*. Five of the horses were *brown* and four were *bay*. Few were *handsome*, but all were *fresh* and *active* and very *fleet*. At a warning signal from the guide each man was *alert*. The new men seemed *nervous*, but they were perfectly *quiet*. For a moment the suspense was *painful*.

Exercise 56

In the following sentences find the subjects, the copulas or copulative verbs, and the predicate adjectives. Explain the use of the verbs and the adjectives. Copy the sentences, as indicated in Exercise 33 (p. 30), marking the subjects, the modifiers of the subjects, the verbs, and the complements :—

1. Yesterday turned cold and wet.
2. All the birds grew quiet.
3. The clouds hung low and thick.
4. Nobody seemed very happy.
5. To-day the sky is blue.
6. The breezes are warm.
7. Many trees are green.
8. Everything is pleasant.
9. All the children are good-natured.

Exercise 57

Use in sentences some of the following words as predicate adjectives:—

Certain, sharp, high, scarce, broad, sandy, glistening, sudden, clear, cold, blue, glad, hollow, dreary, lively, strong, little, quick, gentle, brave, pure, beautiful, deep, calm, dull, bright.

CHAPTER XX

THE ADVERB

As already remarked, we often need to use an adjective with a noun in order to express our full meaning. Similarly, the assertion made by a verb may require various sorts of modification. Examine the following sentences:—

1. The birds flew.
2. The birds flew *away*.
3. The birds flew *away slowly*.
4. The birds flew *away yesterday*.

How does *away* make clearer, or modify, the meaning of *flew*? How does *slowly*? How does *yesterday*? Words thus used to modify the meaning of verbs are called **Adverbs**.

Adverbs often modify the meaning of adjectives; as, *very* smooth, *exceedingly* good, *quite* true, *rather* crooked, *somewhat* sour, *uncommonly* beautiful.

Adverbs may also modify the meaning of other adverbs; as, *very rapidly*, where *very* modifies the meaning of the adverb *rapidly*.

Hence the definition:—

A word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb is an Adverb.

Exercise 58

What words in the following selection are used to modify the meaning of verbs? In each case tell which verb is modified:—

Yesterday I took a long ride through the mountains on horseback. I started early in the morning. The sun had just risen. The air was frosty. Everywhere the grass and the twigs glistened in the sunshine. I rapidly gained the crest of the mountain and scanned closely the wide plain that stretched westward. The sun rose higher. Suddenly I spied the flag of the fort waving gracefully in the breeze.

Exercise 59

Complete each of the following sentences by using a suitable adverb to modify the meaning of the verb. By asking questions with *when, where, how, how long, how much, etc.*, you will easily find an appropriate word:—

1. The boys are walking ———
2. In this light I can ——— see.
3. The lightning flashed ———
4. Thunder-showers come up ——— in the tropics.
5. The shoemaker sat ——— at his work.
6. On the altar the candles blazed ———
7. The messengers appeared ———
8. The boat floated ——— down the quiet river.
9. He read the letter ———
10. The horse dashed ——— through the street.

11. She received her guests ———

12. I know him ———

Exercise 60

Put into sentences the following words as adverbs to modify the meaning of verbs :—

Quickly, gently, smoothly, now, then, to-day, yesterday, politely, truly, kindly, outside, inside, well, usually, exactly, soon, already, sensibly, sternly, drowsily, briefly, often, sometimes.

CHAPTER XXI

THE ADVERBIAL PHRASE

Just as nouns may be modified by phrases, so, too, may verbs.

Compare the following sentences :—

1. The ship sailed away.
2. The ship sailed through the blue water.
3. The ship sailed across the sea.
4. The ship sailed to foreign lands.
5. The ship sailed with a huge cargo.
6. The ship sailed on the first day of June.

What word modifies the meaning of the verb *sailed* in the first sentence? What group of words modifies *sailed* in the second sentence? What group in the third? What in the fourth? In the fifth? In the sixth?

1. The book was found on the floor.
2. The book was found under the table.

3. The book was found on the desk.
4. The book was found upon the shelf.
5. The book was found in the satchel.

What groups of words tell where the book was found? What groups, then, modify the meaning of the verb "was found"?

Since all these groups of words modify the meaning of verbs they are used like adverbs. Each group is a *phrase*, and hence does *not* contain a *subject* and a *predicate*. Such phrases we call **Adverbial Phrases**. We have, then, the definition:—

A phrase that is used like an adverb is an Adverbial Phrase.

Adverbs may also be modified by adverbial phrases. For example, "He acted *in some respects* foolishly."

Adjectives may be modified by adverbial phrases. For example, "This tree is dead *at the top*," "This light is bad *for the eyes*."

Exercise 61

Point out the adverbial phrases in the following sentences, and tell what verbs they modify. Copy the sentences, and draw under each verb two straight lines and under each adverb and adverbial phrase a waved line with the letter *p.* below it:—

We met a squall that tore our sails to pieces. A Dutchman fell overboard. After a troubled voyage we came to land. In the morning there was a heavy rain, but in the afternoon a breeze sprang up and in an hour swept the sky clear. At the pier we found a queer-looking crowd. In one corner sat an aged negro, who had come on foot to see our vessel land.

On the opposite side an Indian leaned against a bale of cotton, and with unchanged expression gazed at us for a full half-hour. From all sides peddlers pressed to the front, determined to sell, at the first opportunity and at the highest possible price, everything that they had.

Exercise 62

In the following sentences fill out the blanks with adverbial phrases, and tell in each case what verb the phrase modifies. Put under each of the adverbial phrases a wavy line with the letter *p.* below it:—

1. Our boat started _____ and arrived _____
2. _____ we saw some fine scenery.
3. We fished _____
4. The boy climbed _____
5. He threw the unripe fruit _____
6. The flies buzzed _____
7. The footman brushed the hat and hung it _____
8. The angry servant shut the door _____
9. Come with me _____
10. Old Roger tossed the ball _____
11. He held a pair of worn gloves _____
12. A row of portraits hung _____

Thus far you have found three kinds of phrases, adjective phrases, verb phrases, and adverbial phrases.

Remember that a phrase never contains a subject and a predicate, and is always used like an adjective, a verb, an adverb, or a noun. Hence—

A group of words not containing a subject and a predicate and used as some part of speech in a Phrase.

CHAPTER XXII

THE PREPOSITION AND THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Thus far we have studied nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. We have next to consider some important words that help to shape the meaning of the sentence. One of these words is found in each of the following sentences:—

1. The boys went *through* the village.
2. The boys looked *across* the brook.
3. The boys *in* the tree were waving flags.
4. The boys stood *behind* the two big trees.

What word shows the relation between *village* and *went* in the first sentence? Between *brook* and *looked* in the second sentence? Between *tree* and *boys* in the third sentence? Between *trees* and *stood* in the fourth sentence?

If you take the word *through* out of the first sentence the remaining words do not convey any definite meaning. The same will be found true if you take *across*, *in*, and *behind* out of their respective sentences. In each case the word is needed to show the relation between the noun used with it and some other word. *Through* shows the relation between the noun *village* and the verb *went*; *across* shows the relation between the noun *brook* and the verb *looked*; *in* shows the relation between the noun *tree* and the noun *boys*; and *behind* shows the relation between the noun *trees* and the verb *stood*.

Such words as *through*, *across*, *in*, and *behind*, when used to show the relation between words in the sentence, are called **Prepositions**. Hence the definition:—

A word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word in the sentence is a Preposition.

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

You will notice that the principal word following the preposition in each of the examples given above is a noun. In the first sentence it is the noun *village*. What is it in the second? In the third? In the fourth?

The group of words introduced by a preposition is called a **Prepositional Phrase**. In the first sentence the phrase is “through the village.” What is it in the second? In the third? In the fourth?

In the first sentence the noun *village* is said to be the **Object** of the preposition *through*. What is the object of the preposition *across* in the second sentence? Of the preposition *in* in the third sentence? Of the preposition *behind* in the fourth?

If we say, “The stranger came to us,” “He spoke to us,” “He went to the station with me,” what preposition is used in each sentence? What is the object of each of these prepositions? Between what words does the preposition show the relation in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? What is the prepositional phrase in the first sentence? In the second? In the third?

From the study of these sentences you observe that

pronouns, as well as nouns, may be used as the objects of prepositions.

Exercise 63

In the following sentences what are the objects of the prepositions? What are the prepositional phrases? In each sentence point out the words between which the preposition shows the relation:—

Under the pelting rain the snow melted rapidly. Muddy streams dashed down the hills into the little river. Great cakes of ice crashed against the piers of the old stone bridge. Boats were torn from their moorings. Rubbish of various sorts was spread over fertile fields. On every side was a scene of desolation and ruin.

Exercise 64

Using some of the following prepositions, make twenty prepositional phrases:—

After, against, about, above, across, along, among, around, at, before, below, beside, behind, between, beyond, by, concerning, down, during, except, for, from, in, into, off, on, over, since, through, throughout, to, till, toward, under, underneath, up, upon, until, unto, with, within, without.

Sometimes a group of two or more words is used like a preposition. Such groups may be called **Phrasal Prepositions**. The following are some of the phrasal prepositions most often used:—

According to, away from, because of, by means of, instead of, on account of, out of.

Exercise 65

Put into sentences at least ten of the prepositional phrases that you made in the last exercise. Explain in each case whether the prepositional phrase is used as an adjective or an adverb.

Exercise 66

Put some of the following prepositional phrases into sentences. In every sentence underscore the words between which the preposition shows the relation:—

In the shade; in the valley; from the woods; over the river; in bloom; in winter; through an opening; in the yard; in a tangle; between my hands; of the birds; upon the stair; in the corner; against the tree; to her nest; by the wayside; under the eaves; with their bright blossoms; on their perch; at the time; before the house.

Exercise 67, for Review

In the following sentences select all the phrases and explain how each is used,—as a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. Draw two straight lines under each verb or verb-phrase, and a wavy line with the letter *p.* below it under each adverbial phrase:—

Our steamer sailed late in the afternoon. We had expected to start earlier, but a thick white fog crept up the bay and hid everything. At noon we could hardly see the masts. I had bought a newspaper of a ragged little fellow, but I could not read it in the clammy mist, and I was unwilling to stay in the crowded, stuffy cabin. The fog hung over the bay until four o'clock. Then suddenly I saw a flash of sunlight on the deck and felt a fresh breeze. In half an hour the fog was swept off to the east, so that we could see the open ocean breaking on the beach far away. On every side of us were vessels

at anchor. In front lay a square little craft with brown sails. Beside her was a large schooner, with three tall masts. There were great ocean-steamers, coasting-vessels, fishing-boats, barges full of coal, all perfectly quiet. We did not delay much longer. Our anchor was heaved up; our whistle blew; and soon we were on our way at full speed.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE NOUN USED AS AN ADVERB

You have already been told that the way in which a word is used in a sentence determines what part of speech you are to call it. You are now to see how a **noun** becomes an **adverb**. Note the following sentences:—

1. Birds that dislike our winters go home to the South before the winter begins.
2. In so doing they travel many hundred miles.
3. They remain away from us several months.
4. Last Thursday a flock of crows flew away on their winter trip.

Whither do the birds go? What noun indicates this? How far do they travel? What noun tells us? How long do they remain away, and when did a flock of crows start off? What nouns answer the questions?

Nouns that indicate which way, how far, how long, or time when are used as adverbs. In the first sentence the noun *home* is used as an adverb to modify the meaning of the verb *go* by telling which way birds

go. In the second sentence how does the noun *miles* modify the verb *travel*? In the third sentence what verb does *months* modify? What verb does *Thursday* modify in the fourth?

Nouns are sometimes used as adverbs.

Exercise 68

In the following sentences what question does each noun used as an adverb answer, and what word does each modify?

1. The chipmunk sat still five or six *minutes*, and then ran hurriedly to the ground.
2. Last *year* a wood-thrush built her nest in one of our trees.
3. One *day* I found a hawk's nest full of eggs.
4. Last *Wednesday* there was a heavy snow-storm.
5. Next *week* our friends will sail for Bermuda.
6. Before Raymond could fire, the elk was two hundred *yards* away.
7. The fort was distant two days' *journey*.
8. Last *September* our friends had fine fishing in the lake.
9. The camp, that *season*, was beside the Cedar Rapids.
10. One *evening* the fisherman came up the rocks dragging a young seal behind him.

If a noun is preceded by a preposition the noun is of course the *object of the preposition*. Some nouns used as adverbs may thus become a part of prepositional (adverbial) phrases. For example, in the first sentence, we may say, "for five or six minutes"; in the ninth sentence, "during that season." In some cases there is little choice between the forms: in others, there is a decided advantage in using one rather than the other.

Exercise 69

Write ten sentences, each containing a noun used as an adverb.

Exercise 70, for Review

Write ten sentences, each containing a prepositional phrase used as an adjective.

Exercise 71, for Review

Write ten sentences, each containing a prepositional phrase used as an adverb.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE INDIRECT OBJECT OF THE TRANSITIVE VERB

Why is the verb in each of the following sentences transitive? What is the direct object of each of these verbs?

1. Rip told his story.
2. The guide showed the trail.
3. Jean gave a dollar.

Now read the following sentences, which still retain the direct objects, and note the additions:—

4. Rip told his story to the stranger.
5. Rip told the stranger his story.
6. The guide showed the trail to Ronald.
7. The guide showed Ronald the trail.
8. Jean gave a dollar to the beggar.
9. Jean gave the beggar a dollar.

To whom did Rip tell his story? To whom did the guide show the trail? To whom did Jean give a dollar?

In every case where the preposition is expressed the answer points out the object of the preposition; in every case where the preposition is not expressed the answer points out the **Indirect Object** of the **Transitive Verb**. You will observe, also, that when there is both a direct and an indirect object the indirect object stands nearer the verb than the direct object does, and that it answers the question **To whom?** By asking the questions **To whom** or **For whom?** and **To what** or **For what?** we can find the indirect object of a transitive verb. We have, then, the definition:—

When the action of a transitive verb is merely directed toward an object, this object is said to be the Indirect Object.

Exercise 72

In the following sentences point out and explain all transitive verbs, all direct objects, and all indirect objects. Ask the proper questions to find the direct and the indirect objects:—

1. The traveller told Donald a long story.
2. Ralph paid his cousin frequent visits.
3. A door left ajar gave him a peep into the best parlor.
4. The captain ordered him a good dinner on the spot.
5. Soon the fragrant odors from the kitchen gave him an appetite.
6. "Pray do me the favor of dining with me again tomorrow," said the officer.
7. The engineer promised him a finished plan for the proposed fort.
8. When the captain went away he left the engineer five hundred dollars.

Exercise 73

The following is a list of some of the transitive verbs that often take an indirect object. Write at least six sentences, in each of which you supply one of these verbs with an indirect object:—

Do, refuse, give, leave, send, forgive, bring, tell, write, lend, owe, allow, grant, show, yield, throw, pay, make, present, answer, hand, pass.

Exercise 74

Rewrite the sentences in Exercise 72 in such a way as to put all the indirect objects into prepositional phrases. What other changes do you notice in the new sentences in every case?

NOTE.—*It is important to remark that the indirect object is equivalent to a prepositional phrase and is a modifier of the verb.*

CHAPTER XXV

THE SIMPLE PREDICATE AND THE COMPLETE PREDICATE

We have noted the difference between the simple subject and the complete subject. We have now to consider the difference between the simple predicate and the complete predicate. Examine the following sentences:—

1. Antelopes were running lightly.
2. Antelopes were running lightly in all directions.
3. Antelopes were running lightly over the plains.
4. Antelopes were running lightly at break of day.

In each of the foregoing sentences the words *were running* are used to make an assertion about the ante-

lopes. *Were running*, therefore, is a verb. It is also the **Simple Predicate** of each sentence. In the first sentence *lightly* is an adverbial modifier of *were running*, because it tells how the antelopes were running. By combining the simple predicate *were running* with its modifier *lightly* we form the **Complete Predicate** *were running lightly*.

In the second sentence what adverb and what phrase modify the meaning of the verb *were running*? Unite these *modifiers* with the simple predicate and you have the **Complete Predicate**.

What are the modifiers of the verb in the third sentence? What is the complete predicate? What are the modifiers and the complete predicate in the fourth sentence? How would the sentence read with all the modifiers combined?

The Simple Predicate consists of a verb.

The Complete Predicate consists of a verb with its complements and modifiers.

Exercise 75

In the following sentences find first the simple predicates; then put with them their complements and modifiers to form the complete predicates. If the simple predicate has no complement and no modifier, it is simple and complete at the same time:—

1. The yellow sunshine flooded the hills.
2. The maples flamed with scarlet and purple and gold.
3. A lumbering brown bear pattered down the rocky slope to a bubbling spring.
4. A deer watched the bear from a neighboring thicket.

5. Then a light breeze came down from the hills.
6. It ruffled the surface of the lake with broken curves.
7. The reflections vanished from the water.
8. A hunter kindled a fire on the bank of the lake.
9. The smoke rose in thick clouds.
10. Suddenly the hunter paused with his hand to his ear.

Exercise 76

Indicate by lines, as before directed (pp. 30, 48), the simple subjects with their modifiers and the simple predicates with their modifiers and complements in Exercise 75.

Exercise 77

In the following sentences find the simple and the complete predicates:—

Early in the evening the two children started for home. Their path lay over the steep ridge of the mountain. Here and there the way was very narrow. The chilly air threatened snow. But they went off with a laughing “Good-by.” The old shepherd silently shook his head, with an anxious look. Then he said to himself, “We shall have snow in an hour or two.” An hour passed. The sheep were safe in the fold. The cows were fed. A bright fire crackled on the hearth. But the shepherd was uneasy. From time to time he looked out of the door. The sky had grown very black. Then a whirling flake of snow fell on the old man’s hand. The dreaded storm had begun. He hastily caught up his cap and his heavy staff. A moment later, with his lighted lantern held high above his head, he hurried toward the ridge with his shaggy dog bounding beside him.

CHAPTER XXVI

A REVIEW

What is a verb? A verb-phrase? Select five verbs and three verb-phrases from Exercise 77. Write five sentences with a verb-phrase in each.

What is a transitive verb? An intransitive verb? How does a transitive verb differ from an intransitive verb that expresses action? Illustrate this difference by writing four short sentences.

What is a copulative verb? Explain the difference between the complement of a transitive verb and the complement of a copulative verb. Illustrate this difference by writing four sentences.

What is an adverb? An adverbial phrase? Write three sentences illustrating the use of adverbs and three illustrating the use of adverbial phrases. Write two sentences, the first containing an adjective phrase and the second an adverbial phrase. Write five sentences to illustrate the indirect object.

CHAPTER XXVII

NOUNS USED INDEPENDENTLY BY DIRECT ADDRESS

We often have occasion to address others, either by their proper names or by a name common to a group of persons. Note the following:—

1. "Boys, are you ready for our game of base-ball?"
2. "Yes, Tom, you know we are always ready."
3. "Mr. Hudson, will you be our umpire?"

In the first sentence to whom does Tom address his question? Who is addressed by name in the second sentence? In the third sentence?

The name of the person or thing addressed is said to be used independently by Direct Address.

Exercise 78

In the following sentences select the name of the person or thing addressed, and notice how in every case it, with its modifiers (if it has any), is set off from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas:—

As the general looked anxiously down the dusty road he saw a messenger in uniform galloping toward him. In a moment the man had dismounted. "A letter for you, General," said he respectfully, holding out a soiled envelope. "Well, my man," said the general, "you seem to have had a hard ride. Orderly, give this man a glass of water. Colonel Newcome, I wish to see you a moment. Captain Briggs, will you keep your eye on that ridge beyond the river? Lieutenant Martin, you will hold your men ready for an instant advance." Then, turning toward the soldiers drawn up in line, he added, "I have only one word to say to you, my men: everything to-day depends upon you."

Exercise 79

Write sentences in each of which you represent some one of the following persons as being addressed. You may ask a question, express a command, or make a request:—

A coachman; a conductor; a boy; a group of boys; a group of girls; a governor; a judge; a presiding officer;

Mr. Simmons; Mrs. Herbert; Miss Holman; your uncle; your aunt; your grandfather; your cousin.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE INTERJECTION

We may sometimes crowd much meaning into a single word, as is illustrated in the following sentences:—

1. "*Hurrah!*" shouted officers and soldiers alike.
2. *Oh!* what good news.
3. *Ah!* you don't mean it, do you?
4. *Pshaw!* the whole story is absurd and ridiculous.

In the foregoing sentences the words in italics express strong feeling or emotion. *Hurrah* expresses joy and exultation; *oh*, delight; *ah*, surprise; and *pshaw*, disgust. Words so used have no grammatical connection with the other words of the sentence in which they occur, but are interjected or "thrown in" for the purpose of indicating joy, sadness, wonder, pity, pain, or some other sudden or intense emotion felt by the writer or speaker. Such words are called **Interjections**.

The interjection *oh* may be used in spoken language to express various emotions, the tone of voice indicating the feeling of the speaker. The same is true of some other interjections.

An interjection is a word that expresses strong feeling or emotion.

Since as a rule the interjection has no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, some grammarians would not include it among the parts of speech.

Exercise 80

Point out the interjections in the following sentences:—

1. Shame! How dare you play such a trick on an old man?
2. Good! good! I'm glad of it.
3. Lo! this is the joyful day.
4. Alas! there is no hope for him.
5. Hello! give me number forty-one.
6. Bravo, my boy! Remember all I have told you!
7. Whew! how hot it is here!
8. Oh! if I had only known!
9. Ah! as usual, he is looking out for himself.
10. Pshaw! don't stay there.
11. Oh! don't hit me in that way again.
12. Alas! those days will never return.
13. "Fie, fie!" said the major, who was fond of old-fashioned phrases.

All interjections are exclamations, and hence the exclamation point [!] usually follows the interjection, but it sometimes stands at the end of the exclamatory sentence or expression.

Exercise 81

Frame sentences to include the following interjections:—

Oh, ah, pshaw, hurrah, hush, nonsense.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE CLAUSE

It is often desirable to have more than one way of expressing the same thought. For example,

1. Washington was *a fearless* man.
2. Washington was a man *without fear*.
3. Washington was a man *who did not fear danger*.
4. The man *in the carriage* was the governor of New York.
5. The man *that sat in the carriage* was the governor of New York.

What words are used to modify *man* in the first sentence? What **group** of words is so used in the second sentence? What group in the third sentence? Why is *without fear* a phrase? Why can we not call "who did not fear danger" a phrase?

In the fourth sentence what *group* of words describes *man*? You will remember (p. 52) that such a group of words is called a prepositional phrase, and that when used, as it is here, to describe a noun, it is called an adjective phrase. You will also remember that *a phrase contains neither subject nor predicate*.

In the fifth sentence the group of words used to describe *man* is "who sat in the carriage." This group of words, like the phrase, is used as a part of speech, but it contains the subject *who* and the predicate *sat*. It is, therefore, not a phrase, but a **Clause**.

We have, then, the definition:—

A group of words containing a subject and a predicate and used as a part of a sentence is a Clause.

Exercise 82

In the following sentences tell whether the italicized groups of words are phrases or clauses, in every case giving reasons. What does each italicized phrase or clause modify?

1. The old man *in the corner* looked grimly at the stranger *who entered*.

2. The young man, *who was very nervous*, said nothing for a moment.

3. Then the old man raised the heavy cane *that he always carried*.

4. The visitor, *who was watching every movement*, drew back a little.

5. "Are you the young fellow *who came to the village last week?*"

6. "Did you see the advertisement *that I put into the paper?*"

7. "Yes, I thought I could do the work *that you wanted to have done.*"

8. "I have studied in the new school of forestry, *which is probably the best in the country.*"

9. "Well, I want somebody *who knows how to manage a farm.*"

10. "Most of the young fellows *in this town* hardly know what work is."

Exercise 83

In the following sentences find the subject and the predicate in each italicized group of words. What noun or pronoun does each italicized group of words modify?

1. The man *who thoroughly understands his business* is not often without employment.
2. People *who talk loudest* sometimes know least.
3. The sirocco is a hot, dry wind *that scorches the leaves on the trees*.
4. We live in the house *that you see on the hill*.
5. The evil *that men do* lives after them.
6. The small trees *that bear the red apples* are the best.
7. A boy *that is always playing* may have to work some day.
8. He *who hunts for flowers* will find flowers; and he *who loves weeds* may find weeds.
9. The cynic is one *who never sees a good quality in a man* and never fails to see a bad one.

A group of words containing a subject and a predicate and used as a part of speech is called a Dependent Clause.

Explain why each of the italicized groups of words in the foregoing exercise is a dependent clause.

CHAPTER XXX

THE CLAUSE USED AS AN ADJECTIVE

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

In the following sentences you will find some short, but very important, words used unlike any others you have yet studied:—

1. A poor woman who lived near a little English village had an only son.
2. This boy, who was called Jack, was unwilling to work.

3. One day he sold his mother's cow for some odd-looking beans, which he planted in the garden.

What is the adjective clause in the first sentence? How do you know? What word connects this clause with the noun *woman*? What is the adjective clause in the second sentence? What word connects it with the noun *boy*? What is the adjective clause in the third sentence? What word connects it with the noun *beans*?

You have already learned that a *pronoun is a word used instead of a noun*. *Who, which, and that* are so used in the exercises illustrating this lesson. But *who, which, and that* usually refer back, or relate, to some noun going before. Hence they are called **Relative Pronouns**. The noun to which they relate is called the **Antecedent**.¹

We have, then, the definition:—

A pronoun used to connect a dependent clause with a noun or pronoun in the main clause is a Relative Pronoun.

The principal relative pronouns are *who, which, what, and that*.

Exercise 84

In the following sentences select the adjective clauses, and tell what word connects each clause with some noun in the rest of the sentence:—

1. The slope of the hill, which was very steep, was covered with rolling stones.

¹ Antecedent means *going before*.

2. Upon the hill were two great buildings, the cathedral, which overlooked the river, and the castle, which frowned down on the plain.

3. The sky, which had been blue, turned to a dark gray.

4. The coachman, who drove the shining horses, had a portly figure.

5. The squire was a man who disliked parade.

6. The island was a rocky place that was hard to reach.

7. In the path of the storm were sights that made the watchman turn pale.

8. He uttered a cry that no one heard.

9. Before him lay a heavy timber that two strong men could hardly move.

10. But he was a man that was not easily daunted.

Exercise 85

In Exercises 82, 83, and 84 select the relative pronouns and the antecedents of each.

Exercise 86

Write six sentences, each containing an adjective clause.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE CLAUSE USED AS AN ADVERB

As often remarked before, a word that modifies a verb is an adverb. But the modifier of a verb may be not merely a single word, but a phrase or a clause. Observe the italicized words in the following sentences:—

1. *While we were in the town*, a company of immigrants passed through.

2. *As they crossed an open meadow*, they were attacked by roving Indians.

3. *When the Indians saw the resolute front of the immigrants*, they retreated in confusion.

How do you know that the italicized groups of words are used as adverbs? How do you know they are clauses?

Exercise 87

Copy the following sentences and draw a line under each group of words used as an adverbial clause. In each case explain why the group is a clause and why it is an *adverbial* clause:—

1. When you have time, tell me all about your trip.
2. Do as well as you can.
3. He was in good health as long as he was in Colorado.
4. While I am waiting for the postman, I will write a few words more.
5. Wherever he is he finds work to do.
6. Dinner is served as soon as the boat leaves the pier.
7. Frank had to leave school after his father went to Europe.
8. Our school closes when the hot weather begins.
9. The vacation continues until the cool days of September come.
10. There has been no good skating since the races were held on the ice.
11. Before you write anything, spend some time in thinking.

12. After you have been in France a year, you will probably understand French well.

13. When I am rich I shall be glad to help you.

Exercise 88

Write six sentences, each containing an adverbial clause.

CHAPTER XXXII

THE CLAUSE USED AS A NOUN

A group of words taken as a whole may be regarded as a noun, just as if the group were a single word. For example, note the clauses in the following sentences:—

1. The colonel learned *that the messenger had come*.
2. The messenger told him *how near the enemy was*.
3. The colonel told his men *that they must conquer or die*.

What did the colonel learn? What group of words answers the question? Why would you call this group a noun? Why is it a dependent clause? What did the messenger tell the colonel? What did the colonel tell his men? What group of words answers each of these questions? How is each group used as a dependent clause and also as a noun?

Exercise 89

Explain why each italicized group of words in the following exercise is a noun-clause:—

1. *What is true of this book* is true of all books published within the last twenty years.

2. He feared *that he might never escape from the island.*
3. *What we want to do* is not always what we ought to do.
4. You have already learned *that some patience is needed in studying English grammar.*
5. I see in the paper *that there has been a great fire in New York.*
6. I will tell you *where I live.*
7. I cannot say *how sorry I am.*
8. I hear *there was a disturbance last night in the lower part of the city.*
9. Few of the guests knew *who the stranger was.*
10. I wish *the Colonel were in Calcutta.*
11. They say *a mule will walk over a trestle bridge like a dog.*
12. He noticed *that the house was surrounded by a high stone wall.*
13. I hardly remember *who was there.*
14. I thought *that I heard somebody speak.*
15. Can you guess *what I have in my hand?*

You will observe from a study of these and other sentences that noun-clauses used as subjects are much less frequent than noun-clauses used as objects.

A noun-clause may be used as an appositive. For example,

The hope *that they may one day be rich* is wonderfully attractive to some people.

The governor has sent word *that he cannot come to-day.*

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

We have learned that *a simple sentence contains but one subject and one predicate*. We have learned, too, that *a group of words containing a subject and a predicate and used as some part of speech is a dependent clause*.

Let us see what we find in the following sentences:—

- ✓ 1. *While the band played* the people stood motionless.
2. The orator, *who moved his hearers at will*, was a plain workingman.
- ✓ 3. *When he stopped speaking* the applause was long and loud.

How do you know that the italicized group of words in each of these sentences is a dependent clause? By taking the dependent clause out of each of the sentences you have the following expressions left:—

4. The people stood motionless.
5. The orator was a plain workingman.
6. The applause was loud and long.

When a simple sentence is a part of another sentence it is called a **Clause**. A clause that forms a complete sentence when taken by itself is called a **Main** or **Independent Clause**. All other clauses are **Dependent Clauses**. The three sentences above that contain main and dependent clauses are called **Complex**.

We have, then, the definition:—

A sentence that contains a main or independent clause and one or more dependent clauses is called a Complex Sentence.

Observe that commas are often used to separate dependent clauses from the rest of the sentence. But if the connection in thought is very close the comma should be omitted.

Exercise 90

In the following paragraphs point out the complex sentences and the simple sentences, and explain why each is simple or complex:—

—The barn that we built last year is much too small. An architect who happened to be in town for a few days drew the plans. But there are some things that we should have arranged differently. For instance, the door that was placed in the corner nearest the house is of no use to us. The space that is wasted in our carriage-room would be useful in the harness-room. But, unfortunately, the week when the architect was here was a time when father had to be out of town.

—The garden where they were sitting had been planted two centuries before. It was full of great rose-bushes, tangled vines, and beds of bright old-fashioned flowers. A bubbling fountain splashed softly in the midst of the long rich grass. The shadows grew longer as the sun slowly sank. Nothing broke the stillness except the falling water. Everything seemed like a dream of the days that had long since vanished.

Exercise 91

In Exercises 82, 83, and 84 point out the dependent clauses that are separated from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas.

Exercise 92

In the following sentences what are the principal clauses and the dependent clauses, and why? Explain how each dependent clause is used,—whether as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun:—

- ✓ 1. Since he had arrived on the island he had seen no human being.
2. He listened to the steady drip, drip, of the water as it fell to the floor of the cavern.
3. He did not know how long he had been lying there.
4. The fear that he might slip from the narrow shelf of rock into the boiling flood below made him tremble.
5. If you pass his door, you will probably hear him singing.
6. He would not talk so much if you would talk more.
7. If you had moved, the lion would have sprung.
- ✓ 8. The place where this occurred was about a mile from the town.
9. I remember the day when I first saw him.
10. Where once the bark canoe lay along the strand, steamers now lie moored along the crowded levee.
- ✓ 11. Where the stream had overflowed the bank, mud was heaped up in long ridges.
12. The crash of falling trees resounded in front, where a hundred axemen labored with ceaseless toil to hew a passage for the army.
- ✓ 13. The painter turned as he spoke.
- ✓ 14. While they were laughing and talking together, they met a party of Frenchmen.
- 15. As the carriage rolled out of sight he turned away from the window.

Exercise 93, for Review

In the following paragraph select all the simple and all the complex sentences, and explain why they are simple or complex:—

On the edge of the deep pit which he had dug the miner stood holding a large stone in his hand. Gleams of dull yellow shone on the rough surface as the sunlight struck it. He sat for a time on the grass. The birds that were perched just above his head sang as if they knew what had happened. That stone meant that he was a rich man. He thought over all the struggles that he had had. He remembered the sacrifices that he had made. He trembled at the possibilities that he saw before him. Then he knelt in silence on the ground. He arose with a smile on his lips. For the rest of the day he sang snatches of songs that he had learned in childhood.

Exercise 94

Indicate by wavy lines, as before directed, the modifiers of the subjects and of the predicates in Exercise 93.

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

Hitherto we have studied simple and complex sentences and the various dependent elements they may contain. We have now to consider how two or more sentences may be combined into one. Observe the following:—

1. The leaves are falling.
2. The rooks are calling.

Why is each of these groups of words a simple sentence? By connecting them with the word *and* we can combine them into a single sentence, as follows:—

3. The leaves are falling, and the rooks are calling.

By using *but* as a connective we can in the same way unite simple sentences into a single sentence, as follows:—

4. The rain fell in torrents.

5. The clouds were beginning to break.

6. The rain fell in torrents, but the clouds were beginning to break.

Sentences 3 and 6, which are formed by combining simple sentences, are called **Compound Sentences**. Each of the sentences 1, 2, 4, and 5, when used as a **part** of a **compound sentence**, is called a **Member** or a **Clause**. The members of compound sentences may be simple sentences or complex sentences.

NOTE.—We may regard as unimportant the question whether the sentences united to form the compound sentence are themselves simple or complex. We thus avoid the necessity of using the awkward term **complex-compound** when referring to compound sentences that contain a dependent clause.

The connectives between the clauses of compound sentences are sometimes omitted; as—

7. The waves dashed higher, the great vessel staggered, and one of the masts snapped with a fearful crash.

8. She could tell him everything: there was no one else to whom she could tell it.

9. Neither of them spoke: they stood looking at each other.

The members of a compound sentence, whether joined by a connective or not, are usually separated by a comma. If the connection is not very close a semicolon or a colon is used.

Exercise 95

In the following exercise point out: (a) the members of the compound sentences; (b) what word, if any, is used to connect the members; and (c) what mark of punctuation is used to separate the members. Tell in every case whether the member is simple or complex:—

1. The gray had not left the west yet, and I could still see a star or two twinkling there.

2. The fires were lit, and the table was spread.

3. The square was filled with white tents and gay uniforms, and on all sides was a noisy conversation.

4. The weather was fine, and the sea was almost smooth.

5. In five minutes after we really began to climb we gained the top of the hills, but here we came to a stop.

6. The sun scorched like fire, and the air swarmed with flies and mosquitoes.

7. We were sure that we had passed the more tedious part of our journey; but many miles still intervened between us and the fort.

8. Not one of the little party hesitated, but their faces grew more anxious as they proceeded.

9. Gradually the darkness increased, and a driving storm came on.

10. The storm soon drenched every one to the skin, but the rapid march kept the men warm.

CHAPTER XXXV

CONJUNCTIONS

COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

We have just seen that certain words are used to connect the members of compound sentences. In the following sentences you will observe that the italicized words connect words that are of the same grammatical kind—nouns with nouns, adjectives with adjectives.

1. Bees *and* ants belong to the insect world.
2. His speech was brief *but* pointed.
3. All were so tired that *neither* man *nor* beast could go a rod farther.

In the first sentence *and* connects the words *bees* and *ants*, each of which is a noun used as the subject of the verb *belong*. In the second sentence *but* connects the adjectives *brief* and *pointed*, both of which describe *speech*. In the third, *neither* and *nor* are used to connect the nouns *man* and *beast*, which are the subjects of the verb *could go*. We call all such connecting words **Conjunctions**. Those that connect words,

phrases, and clauses of equal *grammatical* importance are called **Coördinate Conjunctions**.¹

Some of the coördinate conjunctions most often used are *and, also, but, hence, moreover, or, therefore*.

When coördinate conjunctions are used in pairs they are called **Correlative Conjunctions**. For example, *as—as, both—and, either—or, neither—nor, whether—or* are correlative conjunctions.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

Coördinate Conjunctions are words used to connect the parts of a sentence that are of the same rank.

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

Connectives are not all of the sort we have just discussed. Note the following sentences:—

1. The horse ran *because* it was frightened.
2. It continued to run *until* it fell exhausted.
3. *Unless* rain comes soon, the crops will wither.

Why is each of these sentences complex? What is the principal clause of each? What is the dependent clause? How do you know? What word is used to connect each of these dependent clauses with the principal clause of the sentence?

Such words as *because, until, and unless* are conjunctions because they are connectives and nothing more. But, unlike coördinate conjunctions, they connect dependent or subordinate clauses with main clauses. They

¹ *Coördinate* means of equal rank.

are therefore called **Subordinate Conjunctions**, the word subordinate meaning of *lower rank*.

A Subordinate Conjunction is used to connect a dependent clause with the main clause of the sentence.

Among the subordinate conjunctions of most common use are *after, although, as, although, because, before, except, if, than, that, though, till, unless, until*.

PHRASAL CONJUNCTIONS

A few groups of words are sometimes used like conjunctions. Such groups are called **Phrasal Conjunctions**. Examples of these are *as if, as though, as well as, except that, in order that, so that*.

Exercise 96

Select the conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what words or what groups of words they connect:—

1. The child could hardly speak, but it cried for water.
2. Although rain is unknown in Peru, parts of the country are irrigated by streams.
3. On the higher ground grew a few bushes, while the face of the rock in places was covered by hanging vines.
4. The coast curved a little oceanward, so that an extended view could be had.
5. The farmers must cut their hay this week or it will be spoiled.
6. Neither this nor that has anything to do with the case.
7. If the brushwood and dry leaves were cleared away, the fires would not spread so rapidly.

8. At Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.
9. We must require either a cash payment or a note with
good security.
10. Both in his words and in his actions he showed guilt.
11. In a day or two we shall know whether our money is
lost or whether our fortunes are made.
12. To think that we could have been so deceived!
13. We must wait until we can get another letter.
14. He knows the way as well as I do.
15. Those clouds look as though we should have rain.
16. In order that there may be no disturbance, a few
policemen should be present.

Exercise 97

Use conjunctions in sentences in the following ways:—

1. To connect two nouns used as subjects.
2. To connect two nouns used as objects of transitive verbs.
3. To connect two predicate adjectives.
4. To connect two simple sentences.
5. To connect a dependent clause with the principal clause
of a complex sentence.

Exercise 98

In Exercises 83 and 84 find the conjunctions.

Exercise 99

Write a paragraph of at least a hundred words on the topic,
What I See From My Window.¹ When you have finished make a
list of all the conjunctions in your paragraph.

¹ The teacher will at discretion suggest a substitute topic.

CHAPTER XXXVI

SIMPLE SENTENCE WITH COMPOUND ELEMENTS

As has been explained, a simple sentence has but one subject and one predicate, and a compound sentence consists of two members, either of which may be a simple or a complex sentence. But there are some simple sentences that may have more than one subject for the same predicate; while there are others that may have more than one predicate for the same subject.

Note the italicized words in the following sentences:—

1. *Daisies* and *buttercups* were in bloom.
2. All the *groves* and *woods* were lightly touched with new foliage.
3. The captain *sat* and *stared*.
4. The raging flood *roared* and *surged* outside.

In the first sentence the single predicate *were* has two subjects, which are *daisies* and *buttercups*. It is therefore a Simple Sentence with a Compound Subject. What are the two subjects in the second sentence, and what is their predicate? What kind of sentence, then, have you? In the third sentence there are two predicates for the same subject. We therefore call it a Simple Sentence with a Compound Predicate. How many subjects in the fourth sentence? How many predicates? What kind of sentence is it?

Exercise 100

Tell which of the following sentences are simple, which are compound, which are simple sentences with compound subjects, and which are simple sentences with compound predicates:—

1. The trill of the sparrow and the note of the meadow lark came up from the field.
2. The farmer walked up to the humble bed and sat down on a chair near it.
3. He took a book from the table, but his friend stood silently at the window.
4. Barks, brigs, and schooners loomed white in the distance.
5. These fellows or some of their companions had rummaged through the camp.
6. The smoke of the engine appeared in the distance.
7. The older man took out his pocket-book, extracted a bill, and began to run.
8. One crowd swarmed out of the train, and another stood waiting on the platform.
9. The cabmen hurried about and drove off rapidly.

Exercise 101

In the following paragraph tell whether the sentences are simple, complex, or compound. How is each dependent clause used? What connectives join the members of the compound sentences, and what marks of punctuation separate them?

With the first flush of dawn in the east the bell-ringers began. The great tower trembled as the bells swung to and fro. People in the street stopped and listened. They knew that good news had come. Banners were hung out from the towers and windows. As the morning advanced, processions were

formed in several parts of the city, and men and boys and even women, in fantastic costume, marched through the streets with drums and trumpets and flags for hours together. At midday a great feast was spread in the principal squares, and the whole population united in rejoicing that peace was proclaimed. In the evening all the windows were ablaze throughout the city. Fireworks were seen everywhere.

CHAPTER XXXVII

WORDS USED AS VARIOUS PARTS OF SPEECH

You have now studied in brief outline the various ways in which sentences are made and used. You have also studied every part of speech, and should be prepared to recognize each wherever it occurs. But some care is necessary in order to avoid error. When, for example, we say, "Our friends sail this afternoon," the word *sail* is used as a verb. But when we say, "The crew unfurled the sail to the breeze," *sail* is used as a noun. Explain the different uses of the word in the two sentences.

As a rule we cannot tell what grammatical name to apply to a word until we find it associated with other words in a sentence and see in what way it is used. The use of words in sentences is what chiefly concerns us in the study of modern English grammar.

Exercise 102

Explain whether the words in italics in the following sentences are used as nouns or verbs:—

1. The masons *work* rapidly.
2. They will soon finish the *work*.
3. He offered his right *hand*.
4. Did he *hand* you the book?
5. The men *rush* down the street.
6. The wind and the rain came with a great *rush*.
7. In vacation we get a good *rest*.
8. We *rest* a little every day.

Exercise 103

Use each of the following words in two sentences, making it an adjective in the first sentence and a verb in the second:—

Last, welcome, open, free, content, wet, cool, dull, steady, warm, dry, clean, idle.

Exercise 104

Use each of the following words in two sentences, making it a noun in the first sentence and a verb in the second:—

Iron, plough, cover, crowd, question, answer, name, seat, step, sleep, look, drink, ship, board, play, bat, jump, run, swing.

NOTE.—*This work can be easily extended by the teacher.*

Gathering together the definitions scattered through the preceding pages we note once more that—

1. A word used as a name is a Noun.
2. A word used instead of a noun is a Pronoun.
3. A word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is an Adjective.

4. A word used to make an assertion is a Verb.
5. A word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or adverb is an Adverb.
6. A word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word is a Preposition.
7. A word used to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences is a Conjunction.
8. A word used to express strong feeling is an Interjection.

Applying these definitions, let us determine what part of speech every word in the following sentence may be called:—

⁶ ³ ³ ¹ ⁶ ¹ ¹ ⁴ ⁵ ⁷ ⁵
 In his early years at school Robert worked well, but now,
⁸ ² ⁵ ⁴ ³ ¹
 alas! he sadly wastes his time.

In and *at* are prepositions because they show the relation between certain words. *In* shows the relation between *years* and *worked*; *at* shows the relation between *school* and *years*. *His*, *early*, and *his* are adjectives (see page 127) because they modify nouns. The first *his* modifies *years*, *early* modifies *years*, and the second *his* modifies *time*. *Years*, *Robert*, and *time* are nouns because they are names. *Worked* and *wastes* are verbs because they make assertions. *Worked* makes an assertion about its subject *Robert* and *wastes* makes an assertion about its subject *he*. *Well*, *now*, and *sadly* are adverbs because they modify verbs. *But* is a conjunction because it connects the two members of the compound sentence. *Alas* is an interjection because it expresses strong feeling.

DESIGNATION OF PARTS OF SPEECH 89

NOTE.—*Much time will be saved by requiring pupils in their written work to designate the parts of speech by figures as is indicated in the model sentence. That is,—the noun is indicated by 1; the pronoun, by 2; the adjective, by 3; the verb, by 4; the adverb, by 5; the preposition, by 6; the conjunction, by 7; and the interjection, by 8.*

Exercise 105

In the same way indicate the use of every word in the following sentences:—

The wind came up suddenly and in a moment struck the little craft. Flecks of foam blew into our faces. We could hardly see the lighthouse. A second squall was evidently working its way up the lake. In three minutes it was upon us. For a time we did not try to keep our course. All of us except the steersman were bailing out the water. Five minutes more passed. We looked about. The wind had again died down. We were safe. But oh! what a tossing we had for five minutes!

Exercise 106

Select and explain the parts of speech as in Exercise 105.

“My story is not a very long one,” said the tramp. “I have not always been a tramp. Years ago I was well dressed. I had money in my pocket. I had saved several hundred dollars. Naturally enough I wanted to see something of the world. I had been a foreman in the factory. My friends thought I could do anything. I was, in fact, a sort of jack-of-all-trades. For some reason I decided to go to Australia. The season was winter when I started, but it was summer when I arrived. For a time I was clerk in a large office.

“But money was scarce. The crops were bad. The fields

were bare in many places. Soon I had no position. Then I became a miner, but I was not very successful. I was for a time a sheep-farmer, but the climate was so hot that I could count on nothing. Then I decided to return to America. I worked as a stoker on the steamer. I have been a brakeman on a freight-train. I have been a cowboy, and now I am only a tramp. My life is hard enough in winter, but in summer it is not unpleasant. Do you object to lending me a dime? ”

CHAPTER XXXVIII

ORAL AND GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

You have learned that *a complete thought expressed in words is a sentence*; that a sentence may be divided into two parts, called the complete subject and the complete predicate; that the complete subject may be separated into the simple subject and its modifiers; and that the complete predicate may be separated into the simple predicate, its modifiers, and, in case of verbs of incomplete meaning, the complements and their modifiers.

It now remains to consider more in detail the component parts of simple, complex, and compound sentences. When you name the **parts** of a sentence and explain their **relations** you **analyze** the sentence.

In analyzing a simple sentence you necessarily answer the following questions:—

1. What is the complete subject and what is the complete predicate?

2. What are the parts of the complete subject?
3. What are the parts of the complete predicate?

We will now analyze the following simple sentences:—

SIMPLE SENTENCES

Example 1

A flood of yellow light streamed from the open door.

Making an oral analysis we find—

1. This is a simple declarative sentence.
2. The complete subject is *A flood of yellow light*, and the complete predicate is *streamed from the open door*.
3. The complete subject consists of the noun *flood*, the adjective *A*, and the adjective phrase *of yellow light* modifying *flood*.
4. The complete predicate consists of the verb *streamed* and the adverbial phrase *from the open light* modifying *flood*.

GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

A flood of yellow light streamed from the open door.

Explanation of Symbols

The single straight line under *flood* indicates that *flood* is the simple subject. The two straight lines under *streamed* indicate that *streamed* is the simple predicate. The waved lines with the letter *s*. below

indicate that *A* and *of yellow light* are modifiers of the subject *flood*, and the waved line with the letter *p.* below indicates that *from the open door* is a modifier of the predicate *streamed*.

Example 2

The dark, heavy masses on the distant hillsides were herds of buffaloes.

ORAL ANALYSIS

1. This is a simple declarative sentence.
2. The complete subject is *The dark, heavy masses on the distant hillside*; the complete predicate is *were herds of buffaloes*.
3. The complete subject consists of the noun *masses* with the adjectives *The, dark, heavy*, and the adjective phrase *on the distant hillside* modifying *masses*.
4. The complete predicate consists of the verb *were*, its noun complement *herds*, and the adjective phrase *of buffaloes*, which modifies *herds*.

GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The dark, heavy masses on the distant hillsides were herds
a. b. c. d. e. f.
of buffaloes.
g.

In this sentence there are but two new symbols: The three straight lines to indicate the complement of the verb (in this case the subject complement), and the waved line with *sc.* to denote the modifier of the subject complement.

Example 3

A bitter, whirling wind drove the fine snow rapidly into drifts.

ORAL ANALYSIS

1. This is a simple declarative sentence.
2. The complete subject is *A bitter, whirling wind*, and the complete predicate is *drove the fine snow rapidly into drifts*.
3. The complete subject consists of the noun *wind* and its adjective modifiers *A, bitter,* and *whirling*.
4. The complete predicate consists of the verb *drove*, the object complement *snow*, with its modifying adjectives *the* and *fine*, and the adverbial modifiers *rapidly* and *into drifts*.

GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

A bitter, whirling wind drove the fine snow rapidly
a. a. a. oc. oc. p.
 into drifts.
p.

In this sentence but one new symbol occurs, the waved line with *oc.* to indicate the modifiers of the object complement as distinguished from the subject complement illustrated in the preceding sentence.

NOTE.—*The graphic analysis here suggested is, as already remarked in the Suggestions to the Teacher, an excellent device for testing the pupil's knowledge of fundamental principles. But we have not suggested any method of indicating by symbols various complicated relations of secondary modifiers. To attempt it in elaborate diagrams to be used by grammar-school pupils is at best very questionable. Such modifiers can be disposed of, if at all, by oral analysis.*

COMPLEX SENTENCES

In analyzing complex sentences the dependent clause may first be marked as a subject, an object, or a modifier. It may then be analyzed separately, to show the relation of the parts.

In analyzing a complex sentence you have to ask—

1. What are the clauses, and what is the relation of the dependent clause or clauses to the main clause?
2. What is the complete subject and what is the complete predicate?
3. What are the parts of the complete subject?
4. What are the parts of the complete predicate?
5. What are the parts of the dependent clause or clauses?

Example 4

The elks made broad, dusty paths that stretched across the mountain-side.

ORAL ANALYSIS

1. This is a complex declarative sentence.
2. The independent clause is *The elks made broad, dusty paths*, and the dependent clause is *that stretched across the mountain-side*. The dependent clause modifies the noun *paths*.
3. The complete subject is *The elks* and the complete predicate is *made broad, dusty paths that stretched across the mountain-side*.
4. The complete subject consists of the noun *elks* modified by the adjective *The*.

5. The complete predicate consists of the simple predicate *made*, the modifying adverbial phrase *across the mountain-side*, the complement *paths*, modified by the adjectives *broad* and *dusty* and the adjective clause *that stretched across the mountain-side*.

6. The complete subject of the dependent clause is *that*, unmodified, and the complete predicate is *stretched across the mountain-side*. The complete predicate is the simple predicate *stretched* modified by the adverbial phrase *across the mountain-side*. The two clauses are connected by *that*.

GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The elks made broad, dusty paths \ that stretched
a. p. oc. oc. oc. oc.
 (across the mountain-side.)
oc.

The dependent clause takes two sets of markings. The marks below indicate the relation of the clause *to the sentence as a whole*, while those above indicate the relation *of the parts to each other*.

In the analysis of compound subjects each subject should be disposed of separately. The same is true of compound predicates.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

In analyzing a compound sentence first separate it into its members and then treat each member like a simple or a complex sentence.

NOTE.—*In the graphic analysis no account is taken of connectives and independent elements.*

SECONDARY MODIFIERS

Up to this point we have noted the two kinds of modifiers, adjectives and adverbs. But modifiers themselves may be modified by words, phrases, or clauses. Such modifying words, phrases, or clauses are called **Secondary Modifiers**. Illustrations of these occur in the following sentences:—

1. A very large tree stands near the house where Uncle Robert lives.

2. What is the last word in the first line on this page?

In the first sentence *large* is an adjective modifying *tree* and *near the house* is an adverbial phrase modifying *stands*. But the adverb *very*, which modifies *large*, and the clause *where Uncle Robert lives*, which modifies *house*, are secondary modifiers.

Why is *on this page*, in the second example, a secondary modifier?

CHAPTER XXXIX

FOR REVIEW, FOR ANALYSIS, AND FOR THE SELECTION OF
PARTS OF SPEECH

Exercise 107, for Review

Write a sentence to illustrate each of the following:—

A noun used independently by direct address; an interjection; an adjective phrase; an adjective clause; an adverbial phrase; an adverbial clause; a noun-clause; a conjunction.

Exercise 108

Write five simple sentences and five compound sentences. Explain the difference between a complex and a compound sentence.

Exercise 109

In Exercise 2 (p. 8) name the parts of speech and analyze the sentences.

Exercise 110

Name the parts of speech and analyze the sentences.

1. The hunter discharged his gun.
2. The fishermen drew their nets to shore.
3. Our dog chased a fox over the hills.
4. Agents send me books every day.
5. When you post a letter be careful to seal it.
6. The player struck the ball and drove it over the fence.
7. Gordon pitched the ball into the air and watched it as it fell.

Exercise 111

Name the parts of speech and analyze the sentences.

1. I made my way cautiously through the woods.
2. Suddenly a white wolf jumped up from among some bushes.
3. Then I heard a rustling sound at a little distance.
4. Moving above the tall bushes were the branching antlers of an elk.
5. I was in the midst of a hunter's paradise.

Exercise 112

Name the parts of speech and analyze the sentences.

1. This afternoon I took the train shortly after three o'clock.
2. On the platform of the station stood a company of Swedes.
3. Several women were weeping bitterly.
4. A few seats ahead of me in the car sat a young man who was on his way back to Sweden.
5. His eyes were dry, and he did not lose his self-control.
6. Presently the train started.
7. He paid no attention to the weeping of the women, and waved a smiling farewell.
8. A moment later we left the station far behind us.

Exercise 113

Name the parts of speech and analyze the sentences.

No sign of danger appeared as the party entered the woods. For an hour they struggled along through the dense underbrush. They were now within a mile of the camp. Once or twice they thought that they heard faint cries. But the roar of the waterfall that they were approaching drowned every other sound. About noon they sat down upon the ground for a scanty meal. They had scarcely begun when they saw one of the men from the camp running toward them. He motioned to them that they were to utter no sound, and pointed in the direction of the camp. His clothing was torn, and he was evidently wounded.

PART II

INTRODUCTION

You have now finished Part I, and before taking up Part II you will do well to think for a moment of the ground you have already covered. In brief summary, the most important facts are the following: Sentences, according to the way they are used, may be divided into four kinds,—Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory.

The two main parts into which a sentence may be divided are the Complete Subject and the Complete Predicate. The complete subject consists of the simple subject and its modifiers, if it has any, and the complete predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers, if it has any, its complements, and the modifiers of the complements. The simple subject is commonly a noun or a pronoun, but sometimes it is a phrase or a clause used like a noun. The simple predicate is a verb or a verb-phrase. If the simple predicate is a verb of incomplete meaning, it must have a complement.

The modifiers of the simple subject may be an adjective, a noun indicating possession, an appositive,

or a group of words used like an adjective. The modifiers of the simple predicate may be an adverb or a group of words used like an adverb.

But, besides simple subjects, simple predicates, complements, and modifiers, there are words used to connect other words and show the relation between them. Such words are called Prepositions. There are also words used to connect words and groups of words without showing the relation between them. Such words are called Conjunctions.

Sentences have also independent elements, such as Interjections and Nouns Used Independently by Direct Address.¹

By breaking up a sentence into its component elements we have found that words are divided, according to their grammatical use, into eight parts of speech,—Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. The Article may be classed as an adjective.

¹ Other independent elements are considered later (pp. 119, 248).

CHAPTER XL

THE SENTENCE

Before reaching the chapter in which we considered the parts of speech we studied sentences according to their *form*, as Simple, Complex, and Compound. We are now ready to study more fully the various kinds of sentences, as to their use and form, together with the various parts of speech, their subdivisions and properties.

Exercise 114, for Review

Tell what kinds of sentences the following are; select all the compound subjects and predicates; and tell what part of speech every dependent clause and phrase represents:—

1. When you are lost in the woods, follow the line of least resistance.

2. The man pulled the broad brim of a gray hat over his eyes, but he could not hide his face.

3. A light breeze now and then wrinkled the blue water.

4. The fresh breeze, the dewy road, and the pleasant summer dawn revived his spirits.

5. We planned an excursion to Sandpeep Island.

6. Another guard of soldiers, in double rank, brought up the rear.

7. When the roll of the drum was heard, the advancing line stood still.

8. His voice stirred their souls.
9. Did you hear a rustling of the leaves?
10. He had been rowing his boat across the lake.
11. I turned and faced Captain Nutter.
12. How proud he was of his company!

Exercise 115

Analyze the sentences in Exercise 114.

Exercise 116, for Review

By introducing a relative clause to modify each subject, make the following simple sentences complex:—

1. A horse —— drew the heavy cart.
2. The driver —— sat unsteadily.
3. Some flower-pots —— fell to the ground.
4. The crash —— aroused the old man.
5. A bird —— on the roof flew away.
6. Two dogs —— in the road sniffed suspiciously at the broken flower-pots.
7. A boy —— picked up a broken flower.
8. Just at that moment a handsome, portly man —— rounded the corner of the street.
9. The bystanders —— grew interested at once.
10. A policeman —— came up with an important air.
11. At his approach the noise —— quieted rapidly.
12. The inquiries —— soon brought out the facts.
13. Five minutes later the crowd —— had vanished.

Exercise 117

Analyze the sentences in Exercise 1.

THE SIMPLE AND THE COMPLETE SUBJECT 103

Exercise 118, for Review

In the following sentences select the phrases and the dependent clauses, and tell what part of speech each phrase or clause stands for. Which sentences are simple, and why? Which are complex, and why?

1. The day after my arrival dawned gray and cloudy.
2. The season was unusually warm.
3. The rain poured down steadily.
4. At length the clock in the tower struck seven.
5. The old man lay still with closed eyes.
6. He seemed to be asleep, though he was really awake.
7. His face wore a peaceful expression.
8. By and by the sun shone out again in fiery splendor.
9. After he had read my letter the old man asked me to dine with him next day.
10. When I was announced he greeted me with a warm grasp of the hand.
11. He wore the black gown of the pensioners of the Hospital of Grey Friars.
12. Candles of all sorts and sizes lit up the room, which was the usual meeting-place of the pensioners.
13. In the midst of the confusion he was quietly reading.
14. His favorite book was a history of India, which he had learned almost by heart.

CHAPTER XLI

THE SIMPLE SUBJECT AND THE COMPLETE SUBJECT

What is the simple subject of a sentence? How do you find it? What is the difference between the simple and the complete subject?

What is the simple predicate of a sentence? How do you find it? What is the difference between the simple predicate and the complete predicate?

Exercise 119, for Review

Enlarge the following sentences by adding modifiers to the subjects and to the predicates:—

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Ships sailed. | 10. Men shouted. |
| 2. Armies fought. | 11. Horses ran. |
| 3. Eagles soared. | 12. Clouds gathered. |
| 4. Birds sang. | 13. Flies buzzed. |
| 5. Flowers bloomed. | 14. Children laughed. |
| 6. Smoke curled. | 15. Dogs barked. |
| 7. Boys sang. | 16. Dust flew. |
| 8. Rain fell. | 17. Doors opened. |
| 9. Fruit grew. | 18. Waves dashed. |

CHAPTER XLII

THE SIMPLE PREDICATE AND THE COMPLETE PREDICATE

Exercise 120, for Review

Find all the simple and the complete subjects; also all the simple and the complete predicates.

For some distance the road skirted a deep ravine. Then it mounted the hill, and turned sharply every few rods. Evidently, the tired horses could not drag heavy wagons and guns up such a road. The commander was in despair. But soon the scout hurried back and reported important news. At least a

hundred abandoned horses and oxen were grazing some miles ahead. At this announcement a squad of mounted men dashed up the narrow road and passed out of sight in an instant. The whole baggage-train halted. Officers and men dismounted and prepared for the noonday meal. Before nightfall every gun and wagon was safe in the camp on the crest of the mountain.

Exercise 121

Analyze the sentences in Exercise 118.

CHAPTER XLIII

THE NOUN¹

Exercise 122

Select and arrange in columns all the proper nouns and the common nouns in the following list of words, and beside each proper noun place a common noun corresponding to it in meaning:—

John, Ann, queen, woman, river, Germany, mountain, sea, California, city, town, boy, man, street, lake, country, Asia, Charles Dickens, Chicago, author, poet, novelist, Ivanhoe, Sheridan, Vesuvius, Africa, Albany, Cuba, volcano, Christmas, continent, general, island, holiday, capital, Victoria, Mississippi, Mediterranean, State, Broadway, Erie.

THE ABSTRACT NOUN

Two special kinds of common nouns, abstract and collective nouns, are of frequent use. Abstract nouns

¹ Review Chapter V.

do not name objects, but they name qualities, actions, or conditions. For example, when a stone is rough we say it has the quality of roughness; when a horse runs it performs the act of running; when there is a fog there is a state or condition of foginess.

In these cases the words *roughness*, *running*, *fogginess* are common nouns in the sense of being general or class names, yet they differ from other common nouns in naming not a concrete object, but some quality, some action, or some condition. When qualities, actions, or conditions are separated or abstracted from the objects or things with which they are associated, the names of such qualities, actions, and conditions are called **Abstract Nouns**.

An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, an action, or a condition.

Many abstract nouns, expressing quality, are formed from adjectives. For example, from *good* we form *goodness*; from *great*, *greatness*; from *strong*, *strength*; from *free*, *freedom*; from *high*, *height*; from *wise*, *wisdom*; from *prudent*, *prudence*.

NOTE.—*The help of the teacher will be needed here in defining and illustrating the difference between concrete and abstract conceptions. Of especial importance is it to point out the close connection between the quality expressed by an adjective and the quality expressed by an abstract noun; as, for example, "The carpet has a rich color," "The carpet has richness of color," "The color of the carpet is rich."*

Exercise 123

What names of qualities can you form from the following adjectives?

Bright, clear, keen, cheerful, damp, dark, cruel, rough, soft, hard, late, brisk, slow, cool, warm, hot, true, false, swift, slow.

Exercise 124

What quality can you name as belonging to each of the following objects?

Mountain, rock, snow, river, torrent, prairie, swamp, desert, valley, melon, diamond, steel, coal, glass, leather, milk, lemon, sugar, grass, razor, sun, ice, orange.

Exercise 125

Many abstract nouns expressing action are formed from verbs. What names of actions can you form from the following verbs?

Leap, throw, walk, run, ride, read, write, talk, wink, climb, jump, swing, thump, think, paint, build, dig, call, sing.

Exercise 126

Select the abstract nouns from the following paragraph:—

The rain still fell, and a chilly dampness was in the air. The clouds had no motion, but they hung at a great height and presented surfaces of dense blackness. Presently a small boat hove in sight, steered by a man of uncertain age. His dress was shabby, but the sternness of his expression showed that he was used to being obeyed. The oarsmen handled the boat with much skill, and in spite of the roughness of the waves easily made a landing. Without hesitation the skipper—for the steersman was evidently in command of the vessel anchored in

the bay—made his way up the hill to where the smugglers were sitting in silence about the fire. The whole scene had an air of strangeness about it that I still remember. The richness of the men's weapons contrasted strongly with the poverty of their surroundings. The vigilance of the three watchers on the cliff made possible the easy carelessness of the rest of the company.

THE COLLECTIVE NOUN

Besides the abstract noun, there is another special kind of common noun, denoting a group or collection of persons or objects of the same kind. For example, we call a collection of birds a *flock*; a collection of soldiers a *company*; a collection of cattle a *herd*; a collection of bees a *swarm*; and a collection of trees a *grove*.

Exercise 127

What objects or persons may be included under each of the following collective nouns?

School, jury, staff, court, trades-union, congregation, assembly, crowd, tribe, squad, crew, party, shoal, regiment, troop, fleet, cluster, bunch, pack, drove, committee, board, orchestra, family, brotherhood, menagerie, army.

NOTE.—*In preparing this and similar exercises pupils should make free use of a good dictionary.*

Exercise 128

What noun in the singular may denote a group or collection of the following persons or objects?

Cars, sheep, trees, neighbors, members, dogs, ships, soldiers, sailors, directors, keys, chickens, apples, grapes, Indians.

A Collective Noun is one that names a group or collection of objects of the same kind.

Although a collective noun is usually a common noun, it may become a proper noun if it names a particular object; as, *The Second Regiment, Company K, Congress.*

CHAPTER XLIV

NUMBER OF NOUNS

THE USUAL METHOD OF FORMING THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

Nouns name either one object or more than one, but they are not all exactly alike in the way they indicate the change in the number. The most common method is illustrated by the following examples:—

boy	ruler	book
boys	rulers	books

Here we see that the form of the noun is changed to indicate a change in the number of objects that are meant. A noun that denotes but one object is said to be in the **Singular Number**; a noun that denotes more than one object is said to be in the **Plural Number**.

Most nouns form their plural by adding s to the singular.

But to the general rule just stated there are many exceptions. For example, how is the plural formed in the following nouns: *Fox, box, wish, dish, loss, church, crutch, lunch?* If we should add only the letter *s* to the singular of each of these words we

should get a sound hard to pronounce. We add, therefore, *es*. Hence the rule:—

Nouns ending in s, x, z, ch, and sh form their plurals by adding es to the singular.

Exercise 129

Write the plural form of as many nouns as you can find ending in *s*, *x*, *z*, *ch*, and *sh*.

THE PLURAL OF WORDS ENDING IN *Y*

Note the plural of the following nouns ending in *y*:—

fly	flies	lady	ladies	cry	cries	body	bodies
key	keys	story	stories	city	cities	pony	ponies
toy	toys	valley	valleys	boy	boys	baby	babies

Which of these words change *y* to *i* and add *es*? In these cases is *y* preceded by a consonant¹ or a vowel? Which of the words simply add *s* to the singular? In these cases is *y* preceded by a consonant or a vowel?

Exercise 130

Form the plural of five words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel; of five words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant. Make a rule for the formation of the plural of words ending in *y*.

THE PLURAL OF WORDS ENDING IN *O*

Words ending in *o* most commonly form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular, but there are many exceptions.

¹ The alphabet is made up of vowels and consonants. The vowels are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

THE PLURAL OF WORDS ENDING IN *F* OR *FE*

A small number of nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* to *v* and add *es* or *s*. These include the following common words: *Beef, calf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, shelf, thief, wharf, wife, wolf*. Write the plural of these words.

Exercise 131

Form the plural of five words ending in *o*. Use in sentences the plural of five words ending in *f* or *fe*.

IRREGULAR PLURALS

A few survivals of old ways of forming the plural have come down to us. The plural of *child* is *children*, of *ox*, *oxen*. The plural of *brother* is *brothers* or *brethren*, with some difference in the meaning. The following add no ending but modify the vowel of the singular:—

foot	goose	man	mouse	tooth	woman
feet	geese	men	mice	teeth	women

The plural of *letters, figures*, and other *symbols* is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*); as, "How many *n's* in Tennessee?" "There are eleven *9's* in ninety-nine."

The plural of *proper nouns* preceded by *titles* is formed in two ways. For the singular forms, "Mr. Brown," "Dr. Brown," and "Miss Brown," we may write "the Mr. Browns" or "the Messrs. Brown," "the Dr. Browns" or "the Drs. Brown," "the Miss Browns" or "the Misses Brown." Since there is no plural form

for the abbreviation *Mrs.* we must write "the *Mrs.* Browns" as the plural for "*Mrs.* Brown."

Some compound words form the plural by changing only the most important part of the word. Thus, *son-in-law* becomes in the plural *sons-in-law*, *father-in-law*, *fathers-in-law*, and *court-martial*, *courts-martial*. But sometimes the sign of the plural is added at the end of the entire word; as, *spoonfuls*. Some compound words make a change in both elements. The plural of *Knight Templar* is *Knights Templars*, and the plural of *man-servant* and *woman-servant*, *men-servants* and *women-servants*; but *s* alone is added to form the plural of *Brahman*, *German*, *Mussulman*, *Ottoman*, and *talisman*.

The last syllable of these words does not mean *man* (a human being). *Norman*, however, a shortened form of *Northman*, has the plural *Normans*, and is an exception.

A few nouns have two plural forms, with different meanings; as—

SINGULAR	PLURAL	
brother	brothers (of a family)	brethren (of a society)
cloth	cloths (separate pieces)	clothes (garments)
die	dies (for stamping)	dice (for playing games)
fish	fish (collectively)	fishes (singly)
head	head (collectively)	heads (singly)
penny	pence (collectively)	pennies (singly)

Among the nouns that have the same form for both singular and plural are *deer*, *sheep*, *trout*, *means*, *odds*,

pains, mathematics, politics, and other words having the ending *ics*. But words ending in *ics* are commonly, though not uniformly, regarded as singular.

Some foreign words retain their foreign plurals, but some of them also form their plurals by adding *s* or *es* to the singular. Examples of these may be found in the following list. Others will become familiar to you through your reading:—

SINGULAR	PLURAL
alumna (feminine) . . .	alumnæ
alumnus (masculine) . . .	alumni
analysis	analyses
bandit	{ bandits banditti
beau	{ beaus beaux
cherub	{ cherubs cherubim
crisis	crises
datum	data
formula	{ formulas formulæ
genius	{ geniuses (persons of remarkable powers of mind) genii (spirits)
index	{ indexes (of books) indices (a mathematical term)
memorandum	{ memorandums memoranda

SINGULAR	PLURAL
oasis	oases
parenthesis	parentheses
phenomenon	phenomena
seraph	{ seraphs seraphim
stratum	strata

The nature of some nouns requires that they should be commonly used only in the singular; as, *self-control, temperance, love, hatred.*

Nouns that are used only in the plural include *ashes, assets, billiards, bitters, clothes, dregs, goods, pincers, proceeds, riches, scissors, shears, spectacles, tongs, trousers.*

Some nouns, including *gallows, measles, news,* are plural in form but singular in meaning.

As we shall see in a later lesson (p. 127), personal pronouns, unlike nouns, form their plurals by a complete change in form.

Exercise 132

Write the plural of the following words and, wherever you can, give the rule for the formation of the plural:—

Tree, house, river, glass, bunch, match, lass, rose, calico, tomato, loaf, thief, knife, brother, man, Englishman, Frenchman, Dutchman, Ottoman, German, Norman, father-in-law, mother-in-law, forget-me-not, mother, cousin, cloth, fish, penny, beau, memorandum, cherub, alumnus, phenomenon.

CHAPTER XLV

GENDER

boy	man	king	father	lad	drake
girl	woman	queen	mother	lass	duck

You will notice that in each of these pairs of words the first noun, as *boy*, *father*, *drake*, which is the name of a male person or animal, is different from the second noun, *girl*, *mother*, *duck*, which is the name of a female person or animal. Here we have different words to indicate a difference in sex.

The distinction of sex is called Gender.

A noun used as the name of a male being is of the Masculine Gender.

A noun used as the name of a female being is of the Feminine Gender.

A noun used as the name of an object neither male nor female is of the Neuter Gender.

The word *neuter* means *neither*.

Nouns that may be either masculine or feminine are said to be of the Common Gender.

To express difference of sex we either (1) use different words, as in our first list, and in the following:— *

MASCULINE

bachelor
buck
gander
nephew
uncle

FEMININE

maid
doe
goose
niece
aunt

or (2) we change a part of the word, as in the following:—

he-bear	she-bear
he-goat	she-goat
landlord	landlady
man-servant	maid-servant

or (3) we add a termination to indicate the feminine:—

actor	actress
giant	giantess
host	hostess
lion	lioness
patron	patroness
priest	priestess
prophet	prophetess
tiger	tigress
hero	heroine

Sometimes objects without animal life are spoken of as if they were persons, having the power to think, and feel, and perform actions. Such objects are said to be personified, and may then be regarded as having sex. For example, we often refer to a ship as *she*.

Gender is a matter of relatively slight importance in English grammar. Of the pronouns, only *he*, *she*, *it* really agree in gender with the nouns for which they stand. *Who* refers to persons, but does not indicate their gender. *Which* commonly refers to neuter objects, though frequently used to refer to the lower animals. Moreover, except for the comparatively few nouns that denote sex, nouns in English are of the neuter gender, that is to say, they have no gender at all.

CHAPTER XLVI

CASE

When words have changes in form to denote a difference in use or meaning they are said to be **inflected**. Such changes occur in nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and in some adverbs. Some languages, as, for example, Latin, make free use of inflection, but English words have few changes of form, and hence very little inflection. But English words may have as many **relations** to other words in the sentence as Latin words have. One of these relations we have to consider here.

We have learned that nouns and pronouns may be used as the subjects of verbs, as the direct or indirect objects of transitive verbs, and as the objects of prepositions. Some of the pronouns when used as objects take a form different from that proper for a subject. We should not think of saying—

Him sees I.

Me sees he.

Them sees she.

But we say—

I see him.

He sees me.

She sees them.

In other words, we have in these pronouns a change of form corresponding to the change in the relation to other words in the sentence. In some languages, as, for example, Latin, nouns commonly change their end-

ings whenever they are used as objects of verbs or of prepositions. Many hundred years ago some nouns did this in English. But most of the old case-endings have been lost, and now the only change in the form of a noun to indicate relation to other words in a sentence consists in adding 's or ' to denote ownership or possession.

If you put nouns in place of the pronouns in the sentences above you see that you can use the same noun as a subject or as an object **without changing its form** in order to indicate its case. But nevertheless for convenience we say that any word used as the subject of a verb is in the **Nominative Case** and that any word used as the object of a verb or a preposition is in the **Objective Case**. Since the form of the nominative and the objective is the same, it is called the Common Form of the noun. The **Possessive Case**—which is a real case, since it takes a case-ending—is called the Possessive Form. The only words that have case are nouns and pronouns. The only words that indicate their case by their form are nouns in the possessive form and pronouns.

CHAPTER XLVII

THE NOMINATIVE CASE¹

The Nominative Case is sometimes called the **subject case**. This case is most common, for every sentence must contain a subject, and every subject must be in the nominative case.

¹ Review Chapters XI, XV, XVIII, and XXVII.

But a noun in the nominative case may stand in various relations to other words in the sentence. It may be the subject of the verb; it may be a predicate nominative; it may be used independently by direct address; and it may be used in exclamations. The following are examples of these four uses of the nominative case:—

1. The Nominative as Simple Subject.

The young *man* had recently come to town.

2. The Predicate Nominative. When a noun in the nominative stands after the copula or a copulative verb it is called the predicate nominative.

The young man was a *stranger* in town.

3. The Nominative Independent by Direct Address.

“Young *man*, I have a word to say to you.”

4. A noun or pronoun may be used without a verb as the Nominative in Exclamations.

“Poor *fellow!* I’m afraid there’s no help for him,” exclaimed the Captain.

There is also the Nominative Absolute, but that we shall consider later (p. 248).

Exercise 133

Write five sentences to illustrate the nominative independent by direct address, and five to illustrate the predicate nominative. Name the subject nominative in each of your sentences.

Exercise 134

Point out the words used as nominatives in exclamations.

1. Strawberries! Strawberries! fresh this morning.
2. He! He has no head for business.
3. She! She a painter! She can hardly draw.
4. Morning papers! All the news!
5. Happy thought! The very thing!

CHAPTER XLVIII

THE POSSESSIVE CASE¹

It has been explained that the possessive singular is formed by adding to the noun the apostrophe and the letter *s* ('*s*). If the plural ends in *s* the apostrophe alone is added, but if it does not end in *s* both the apostrophe and *s* are added, as in the singular. It must not be supposed that the apostrophe represents a sound. It is nothing more than a convenient aid to the eye in reading.

Exercise 135

Write the possessive singular and plural of the following nouns:—

King, queen, prince, ruler, man, senator, governor, boy, lady, thief, wife, wolf, brother, child, ox, mouse, woman, neighbor, friend, writer, historian, novelist, poet.

¹ Review Chapter IX.

When nouns end in *s* or the *sound* of *s*, usage is divided in the writing of the possessive. Most writers form the possessive singular of such nouns according to the general rule by adding 's, but others add only the apostrophe. Accordingly, we may write, "James's hat" or "James' hat"; "Francis's bow" or "Francis' bow"; "Dickens's Oliver Twist" or "Dickens' Oliver Twist." Certain phrases, such as, "for appearance' sake," "for conscience' sake," "for goodness' sake," take only the apostrophe.

In forming the possessive of words ending in *s* or the sound of *s* we can often make the sound more agreeable by the use of a **prepositional phrase** with *of*. In some cases there is little to choose between the two forms; as, for example, between "Burns's poems" and "the poems of Burns." In other cases, such as "Xerxes's army," "Confucius's teachings," we have no hesitation in selecting the prepositional phrase.

The prepositional phrase with *of* is commonly used to express the possessive case of names of **objects without animal life**, which the best writers seldom use in the possessive form. We say "the back of the chair," but not "the chair's back"; "the door of the house," but not "the house's door"; "the handle of the knife," but not "the knife's handle"; "the waterworks of Boston," but not "Boston's waterworks."

In some phrases, however, such as, "the day's work," "a week's wages," "a year's absence," the possessive form with 's is used.

Exercise 136

Write the possessive singular of the following nouns. Where you think it preferable, use instead of the possessive form the prepositional phrase with *of*:—

horse	wall	Xerxes
bird	pony	Cuba
hammock	carpenter	England
floor	barn	United States
horseman	rabbit	Germany
rock	hen	France
goddess	head	Spain
girl	field	New Mexico
chimney	clock	Paris
fence	band	widow
gate	husband	Kansas
gate-keeper	sea	Lucius

Compound nouns add the sign of the possessive to the end of the word; as, “commander-in-chief’s” and “father-in-law’s.” Where the noun consists of two or more words, as, “William of Orange,” “Queen Elizabeth,” and “Abraham Lincoln,” the possessive sign is attached to the last word of the expression; as, “William of Orange’s,” “Queen Elizabeth’s,” and “Abraham Lincoln’s.” But in such cases the prepositional phrase with *of* is often preferable to the possessive form.

To indicate joint ownership the sign of the possessive is used with the last of two or more connected nouns; as, “Brown and Thompson’s mill”; “Smith, White, and Northam’s workshops.”

To indicate separate ownership the sign of the possessive is used with each of the connected nouns; as, "Robert's and Frank's watches." This indicates that each of the persons named possesses a watch.

Nouns that have the same form in the singular and the plural add 's in the singular and s' in the plural, as *deer's* (singular) and *deers'* (plural).

Exercise 137

Form the possessive of the following words. Use a prepositional phrase with *of* in place of the possessive with *s* wherever you think the phrase is preferable:—

Fountain, stars, world, car, writer, poet, poem, boot, town, city, reservoir, government, bank, association, community, painter, judge, Congress, Erie Canal, beggar, gentleman.

CHAPTER XLIX

A REVIEW

What is the difference between a common noun and a proper noun? Write five sentences, each containing a common and a proper noun. What is an abstract noun? Name five abstract nouns. What is a collective noun? Name five collective nouns, and use three of them in sentences.

Write the singular and the plural forms of ten common nouns. How do nouns ending in *y* form their plurals? Nouns ending in *o*? Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*? Write the plural of the following: *Child, man, woman, Miss Smith, daughter-in-law, German, cloth, fish, crisis, formula, parenthesis.*

Define gender. Name six nouns of the masculine gender, six of the feminine, and six of the neuter.

Name the three cases of nouns and pronouns. Write three sentences to illustrate each of the following: The nominative as simple subject, the nominative as independent by direct address, and the predicate nominative.

Write the possessive singular and the possessive plural of the following nouns: *Robin, canary, hawk, crow, monkey, elephant, bear, ox, wolf, horse.*

Name ten nouns that preferably form the possessive by the use of a prepositional phrase with *of*.

Write three sentences containing a noun or pronoun used (1) as the object of a transitive verb, (2) as the object of a preposition, (3) as indirect object. Write a sentence containing a noun used as an adverb.

CHAPTER I

THE OBJECTIVE CASE

You will remember that in only one case, the possessive, is the form of the noun changed to denote the relation of the noun to other words. Hence, to determine whether a noun is in the nominative or the objective case, we must see how it is used. Our understanding of its use depends, to some degree, upon its position in the sentence. If we say, "And then the youth the aged man addressed," we are uncertain

¹ Review Chapters XV, XXII, XXIII, and XXIV.

about the subject and the object of the verb *addressed*. Did the youth address the man or did the man address the youth? We cannot tell. If, however, we say, "And then the youth addressed the aged man," or "And then the aged man addressed the youth," the position of the nouns makes clear which is the subject and which is the object of the verb.

A noun may be in the **Objective Case** when used (1) as the direct object of a verb, (2) as the indirect object of a verb, (3) as the object of a preposition, (4) as an adverb, and in some other ways, which will be explained later.

Illustrations of these four uses of the objective case appear in the following sentences:—

1. Direct object of a transitive verb.

The old man dropped the *key*.

2. Indirect object of a transitive verb.

A little girl handed the old *man* the key.

3. Object of a preposition.

A little girl handed the key to the old *man*.

4. Noun used as an adverb.

The old man waited an *hour*.

Exercise 138

Write five sentences to illustrate each of these four uses of the objective case.

CHAPTER LI

PERSONAL PRONOUNS¹

A pronoun, as explained in Chapter VI, is a word used instead of a noun. But some pronouns indicate persons or things which have not been named by any noun. Examples appear in the following sentences:—*I* came. *You* came. *He* came. *She* came. *It* came. The first word of each of these sentences is not a noun, because it is not a name of any person, place, or thing. But it is a pronoun, because it represents some person without mentioning any name.

The pronoun *I* is always in the **First Person**, *you* is always in the **Second Person**, and *he*, *she*, and *it* are always in the **Third Person**.

Thou, *thy*, *thine*, *thee*, and *ye* are not now often used, except in prayer or in poetry. *You* was originally a plural pronoun only, but it is now used as either a singular or a plural. Its number in a given sentence must be determined by the sense.

Pronouns of the first and second persons are necessarily masculine or feminine, that is, of the **common gender**. Those of the third person have gender forms in the singular, *he*, *she*, *it*, but none in the plural.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

When we arrange pronouns according to their person, number, and case, we are said to decline them.

First Person

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nominative	I	we
Possessive	my <i>or</i> mine	our <i>or</i> ours
Objective	me	us

Second Person

Nominative	thou	ye <i>or</i> you
Possessive	thy <i>or</i> thine	your <i>or</i> yours
Objective	thee	you

Third Person

MASCULINE

Nominative	he	they
Possessive	his	their <i>or</i> theirs
Objective	him	them

FEMININE

Nominative	she	they
Possessive	her <i>or</i> hers	their <i>or</i> theirs
Objective	her	them

NEUTER

Nominative	it	they
Possessive	its	their <i>or</i> theirs
Objective	it	them

The personal pronouns in their possessive forms,¹ *my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, and *their*, are used as adjectives.

¹ These words may be considered as either pronouns or adjectives. *His* is strictly the possessive case of *he*, as *John's* is the possessive case of *John*, but in modern English *his* is in effect an adjective and may be so regarded. The same is true of the other words.

The forms *mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs*, are used in the predicate. In the sentence, "The book is mine," *mine* stands for the two words "my book." *Ours, yours, his, hers, its, and theirs* should never be written with the apostrophe.

Exercise 139

Select all the pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the number, person, and case of each:—

1. She was clad entirely in white.
2. She never showed any dislike for her work.
3. He is witty in his way.
4. You frighten me.
5. We will talk about them at another time.
6. Feeding his mind with many sweet thoughts he journeyed along.
7. They had now reached the road leading to Sleepy Hollow.
8. His heart began to sink within him.
9. "Your excellency," said he, "I am a soldier."
10. I take thee at thy word.
11. Hush, hush! do not let her hear you.
12. Thou art the man.
13. Thy will be done.

Exercise 140

Fill out the blanks with appropriate personal pronouns. Give the number, person, and case of each:—

She unfastened the single window, raised —— and leaned out, watching the yellow leaves as —— fluttered down from

the elms. A swallow darted past ——, but —— thoughts were on other things. —— mused on the quaint old portraits that hung in the long gallery. There was the soldier of a hundred years before, wearing —— gay uniform; there was a sweet-faced girl with golden curls sweeping —— shoulders; there were ladies with —— hair powdered and —— gowns strangely figured; there was a family group, the mother holding —— youngest child upon —— knee and the father standing with —— four sons about ——.

As —— mused —— thought, “Shall —— look so strange a hundred years hence? One of those men reminds —— of —— own father.”

In the midst of —— reverie —— heard the door softly open and the voice of the old housekeeper, “Do —— want to see the other rooms? If —— do —— have just enough time to see —— before supper.”

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Some of the personal pronouns are combined with *self* or *selves* to form compound personal pronouns. Instances occur in the following sentences:—

1. Robert himself was there.
2. Robert hurt himself.

In the first sentence *himself* is used to give emphasis to *Robert*, and is an appositive. In the second, *himself* is the object of *hurt* and has a reflexive¹ use. Robert hurt, not somebody else, but himself.

¹ *Reflexive* means *turning back*.

The compound personal pronouns are:—

SINGULAR		PLURAL
myself	ourselves
thyself	}	yourselves
yourself		
himself	}	themselves
herself		
itself		
oneself	}	
one's self		

Be careful to avoid *hisself* and *theirselves*.

Exercise 141

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with appropriate compound personal pronouns, and tell whether each is used in a reflexive or an emphatic sense:—

1. The President —— came to the window.
2. The soldier saved —— by a quick turn to the right.
3. Queen Victoria in her later years kept —— in retirement.
4. The shopkeepers busied —— to make ready for the spring season.
5. The actress read the letter ——.
6. That, in ——, was enough to attract attention.
7. After an hour the fury of the storm spent ——.
8. I can hardly forgive ——.
9. He does not trust ——.
10. We have reserved these rooms for ——.
11. The boatman braced —— against a post.

12. The fanatics threw —— into the river.
13. It is well sometimes to see —— as others see us.
14. You ought to be ashamed of ——.
15. As well as I could I excused ——.

Exercise 142

Use six compound personal pronouns in sentences in an emphatic sense and six in a reflexive sense.

CHAPTER LII

RELATIVE PRONOUNS¹

We must now study more in detail some pronouns that we have already briefly considered (p. 68). Note the pronouns in the following sentences:—

1. In the meantime the captain, *who* had said nothing, was studying a large chart.
2. The other vessel, *which* was lying at the wharf, was a long, slender craft.

Who is a pronoun because it is used instead of the noun *captain*, and refers to him without naming him. It also introduces the dependent clause, "who has said nothing," and connects this clause with the noun *captain*, which stands in the main clause, "In the meantime the captain was studying a large chart." *Who* is called a **Relative Pronoun**,¹ and *captain* is its **Antecedent**. Give two reasons why *which*, in the second sentence, is a relative pronoun. What is its antecedent?

¹ Review Chapter XXX.

The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *as*, and *what*.

Who refers to persons, *which* to things, and *that* to either persons or things. *As* is used when the antecedent is *such*, *many*, or *same*. *What* has no antecedent and is always used in a noun-clause.

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Who and *which* are declined as follows:—

	SINGULAR AND PLURAL	SINGULAR AND PLURAL
Nominative	who	which
Possessive	whose	whose
Objective	whom	which

What, *that*, and *as* are not declined.

Who is either masculine or feminine, *which* is generally neuter, and *as* and *that* may be masculine, feminine, or neuter.

Which is often used to refer to lower animals, and could formerly be used in referring to persons. *Whose* is the possessive of both *who* and *which*, and hence may refer to persons or things. But usually *of which* is used in referring to lifeless things.

AGREEMENT WITH ANTECEDENT

Relative pronouns, like personal pronouns, have the same gender, number, and person as the nouns for which they stand.

Exercise 143

Select the antecedents of the relative pronouns, and the verbs used in the relative clauses:—

1. I, who am now in Chicago, have just received your letter.
2. You who are still young do not understand such matters.
3. My uncle, who stands at the window, sees us.
4. The Simpsons, who are now in New York, have lived for years in California.
5. I, who have been a soldier, find the life here very tame.
6. The men who know most about danger are not always ready to talk about it.
7. I like music that has some life in it.
8. But you, who are always dreaming, prefer music that puts you to sleep.
9. Yet I, who see how much need there is for wisdom, dare say no more.
10. No one here knows me, who am carrying the good news from city to city.
11. Here is one of the novels that have been most popular this year.
12. That is one of the steamers which sail for Liverpool on Saturday.

CASE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Although a relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person, its case depends upon its relation to other words in the dependent clause in which it stands. For example:—

1. The messenger *who dashed into camp* had ridden hard.
2. The messenger *whom we saw* had ridden hard.
3. The messenger, *whose horse was covered with foam*, had ridden hard.

In all three sentences *messenger* is the antecedent, but the construction of the relative pronoun, that is, its relation to other words in the sentence, requires that it should have the **nominative** form in the first sentence, the **objective** form in the second, and the **possessive** form in the third.

THE EXPLANATORY RELATIVE CLAUSE AND THE RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE

Some details about the use of relative pronouns require a word of explanation. Study the following sentences:—

1. This morning I met George Blake, *who has lived in France ten years.*

2. An animal *that has four feet* is a quadruped.

In the first sentence the relative clause, “who has lived in France ten years,” tells something about George Blake by adding the fact that he has lived ten years in France. A relative clause so used is called an **Explanatory Relative Clause**. It is separated from the main clause by a comma.

In the second sentence the relative clause, “that has four feet,” limits or restricts the meaning of *animal*. It is an animal “that has four feet” and not an animal “that has two feet.” The relative used to introduce such a restrictive clause is called the **Restrictive Relative**. A restrictive relative clause cannot be omitted without destroying the sense. It is never separated by a comma from the main clause.

The relative pronoun, used in an explanatory clause, may be distinguished from the restrictive relative by substituting the words *and I* (*you, he, she, it, they*) for the relative pronoun. If the relative is restrictive, no such substitution is possible.

Restrictive relative clauses are most commonly introduced by *that*, but sometimes by *who* or *which*.

The relative is often omitted in short sentences such as, "He is the man [that] I saw yesterday," "Here is the book [that] I want."

THE RELATIVE *What*

What is unlike the other relative pronouns in having no antecedent. It is equivalent in meaning to "that which" or "the thing which," and has a double construction. Note the following sentences:—

1. I remember what you said.
2. What you said is forgotten.
3. What is ill spent is wasted.

In each of these sentences *what* introduces a dependent clause. In the first sentence the dependent clause is the direct object of the verb *remember*; in the second, the clause is the subject of *is forgotten*; in the third, the clause is the subject of *is wasted*. In each sentence *what* has a double construction. In the first sentence it is the direct object of the two verbs *remember* and *said*; in the second, it is the direct object of *said* and the subject of *is forgotten*; in the third, it is the subject of both verbs. This double construction may be made still clearer if in each sentence

we substitute for *what* the equivalent expressions *that* *which* or *the thing which*.

What always introduces a noun-clause.

COMPOUND RELATIVES

Ever and *soever* are combined with *who*, *which*, and *what* to form the Compound Relatives *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

Exercise 144

In the following sentences point out the relative pronouns. Tell what dependent clause each relative pronoun introduces; what its antecedent is; how it agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person; and explain its case:—

1. The tree that grows nearest the fence is a poplar.
2. The trees that grow on this side are oaks.
3. Sir Walter Scott was a writer who was equally great as poet and as novelist.
4. Her health, which was not robust, sank under the blow.
5. I wish you would send me all the varieties of golden-rod that you find.
6. Those red brick buildings, which were once intended for a hospital, are now used for a school.
7. The people who write asking for money sometimes forget to enclose stamps for a reply.
8. A novelist who has written one endurable story is too often tempted to write another.
9. The old writing-desk, which was of solid mahogany, was sadly battered.

10. Stanley shouted to the guide, whom he saw far in advance of the party.

11. This is the little island that I want to buy.

12. On the other side is an old stone house, which we shall see in a moment.

Exercise 145

In Exercises 143, 144 which relative clauses are restrictive and which are explanatory? Explain the use or omission of commas.

CHAPTER LIII

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

Among the most useful pronouns are those used in asking questions. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in this way, are called **Interrogative Pronouns**.

The interrogative *who* refers to persons, *what* usually refers to things, and *which* to persons or things.

Who in its interrogative use is declined like the relative *who*, but *which* and *what* remain unchanged.

Exercise 146

What is the construction, that is, the case, of each interrogative pronoun in the following sentences:—

1. Who are those men at the head of the procession?
2. What have they in their hands?
3. What do you suppose they will do next?
4. What are those gilded wagons?
5. Which do you mean?
6. Which are the soldiers and which are the sailors?
7. Whom do you mean?

8. Who is coming?
9. What does he want?
10. For whom are you waiting?

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

Who, whom, which, what are often used in questions that do not exactly reproduce the words of the questioner. Such questions are called **Indirect Questions**.

All indirect questions are **Indirect Quotations**.

Exercise 147

Point out the indirect questions in the following sentences:—

1. The superintendent asked what the girls were studying at school.
2. The surly watchman asked the boy who had given him permission to sleep in working hours.
3. My aunt asked what I expected to do in town.
4. The conductor asked the man who he was, and what was his destination.
5. The inspector inquired who had broken the windows in the factory.
6. The general inquired who the stragglers were.
7. A captain asked the stragglers who had allowed them to pass the lines.
8. The merchant inquired who the messenger was and whom he represented.
9. He asked me which I meant to sell first.

Exercise 148

Change to direct questions the indirect questions of the preceding exercise. Be careful in your punctuation.

CHAPTER LIV

THE ADJECTIVE¹

We now return to the Adjective, which we studied briefly in a preceding chapter. The adjective is of great value in enabling us to give much information in small space. Sometimes the adjective is as important a part of the sentence as the noun it modifies. Note the following sentences:—

1. Soldiers were riding.
2. *Fifty* soldiers were riding across the plains.
3. *Fifty American* soldiers were riding across the *hot, dusty* plains.
4. *All these* men had served during the *Spanish-American* War.
5. *This brave* company was a part of the *Second* Regiment.

In the first sentence the noun *soldiers* stands without any modifying word. In the second sentence the word *fifty* modifies the meaning of soldiers by limiting the company to a definite number, although it tells us nothing about the kind or quality of the soldiers. But *American* describes soldiers by telling us something about their nationality, *Spanish-American* describes the war, and the words *hot, dusty* present qualities very descriptive of the plains. *All* includes the entire body of men, and *these* and *this* point out those just mentioned. *Brave* indicates the quality of the company.

¹ Review Chapter VII.

Second limits the company to men from a particular regiment.

American, hot, dusty, Spanish-American, brave, are called **Descriptive Adjectives**¹ because they describe the object named by the noun. *All, these, this, Fifty, Second,* are called **Limiting Adjectives** because they limit the meaning of the noun by telling which objects are meant, how many, and so on.

Descriptive Adjectives also limit the meaning of nouns, as may be seen by the following examples:—*Men, white men, red men, brown men, yellow men, tall men, short men.* The word *men* includes all objects of a certain kind. But *white* limits the application of the noun to a certain kind of men, *red* to a still different kind, *brown* to a third kind, and so on.

Some grammarians carefully distinguish between descriptive adjectives and limiting adjectives; and it is evident that some adjectives are highly descriptive, while others add nothing to our knowledge of the character of the things themselves. But the distinction is in many cases difficult to draw, and often not very important. In the strictest sense, every descriptive adjective is to some extent limiting, though a limiting adjective may be in no sense descriptive.

Since pronouns are used to take the place of nouns, they too may be modified by adjectives.

Adjectives derived from proper names are called **Proper Adjectives**; as, *American* from *America*.

¹ Sometimes called Qualifying Adjectives.

Exercise 149

Form proper adjectives from the following words:—

Europe, Africa, Australia, Rome, Paris, Germany, Austria, and Italy.

Notice that proper adjectives, like proper nouns, should begin with capitals.

The possessive pronouns are used as adjectives (see page 127).

Numerals are used as adjectives to indicate a definite number of objects; as, *one, two, three*. Numeral Adjectives include also such words as *first, second, third, fourth, etc.*, which tell definitely which object of a series is meant.

A numeral may be used as a noun. For example, "*Six* of the men were Germans."

An adjective preceded by the definite article may be used as a noun; as,—

The rich, the poor, the young, the old, the middle-aged, the good, the bad, the best, the worst, are to be found in a great city.

CHAPTER LV

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

We are constantly making comparisons, and we find adjectives very useful in the process. Note the following sentences:—

John is quick.

William is quicker.

Henry is the quickest messenger boy in town.

You will notice that the descriptive adjective *quick* indicates a quality belonging to John; *quicker* is used in comparing *William* with *John*; *quickest*, in comparing Henry with all the messenger boys in town. From this we see that the adjective *quick* changes its form to indicate different degrees of quality. This change is called **Comparison**. There are three degrees of comparison, the **Positive**, the **Comparative**, the **Superlative**.

The **Positive Degree** is the unchanged form of the adjective.

The **Comparative Degree** indicates that one object has a quality in a higher or lower degree than another.

The **Superlative Degree** indicates that one object has a quality in the highest or lowest degree.

Study the comparison of the following words:—

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
great	greater	greatest
true	truer	truest
long	longer	longest

Study also the following:—

Helen is intelligent.

Maud is more intelligent.

Sarah is the most intelligent of all.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
eloquent	more eloquent	most eloquent
bashful	more bashful	most bashful

From these examples we see that adjectives are compared in two ways: (1) By adding *er* and *est* to the positive; (2) by using *more* and *most* with the positive. Sometimes *less* and *least* are used in comparisons; as, *intelligent*, *less intelligent*, *least intelligent*.

Adjectives of one syllable and some adjectives of two syllables form their comparatives by adding *er* and *est* to the positive. Some adjectives of two syllables and all adjectives of more than two syllables are compared by combining *more* and *most* or *less* and *least* with the positive form. Some adjectives are compared in both ways.

There is no invariable rule to be followed in the comparison of adjectives. In some cases the form to be preferred depends largely upon the sound. We should, for example, find *more gracious* and *most gracious* easier to pronounce than *graciouslyer* and *graciouslyest*. But such forms were once common. Double comparatives such as *more hotter* and *more darker*, and double superlatives such as *most hottest* and *most gladdest* were formerly in good use, but they are no longer permissible.

The following adjectives have an irregular comparison:—

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bad		
evil	. . . worse	worst
ill		
far	{ farther	farthest
	{ further	furthest

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
good	better	best
late	{ later	latest
	{ latter	last
little	{ less	} least
	{ lesser	
many }	more	most
much }		
near	nearer	{ nearest
		} next
old	{ older	oldest
	{ elder	eldest

A considerable number of other adjectives present irregularities that may be learned by practice.

Some adjectives, such as *daily*, *dead*, *living*, *golden*, *entire*, *whole*, etc., properly admit no comparison.

Such adjectives also as *perfect*, *round*, *straight*, and *square* cannot, in the strictest sense, be compared, for if anything is square or perfect it cannot be more so. But in actual use such adjectives are often compared, since we do not commonly think of a quality as existing to perfection in any object. Hence we often say *straight*, *straighter*, *straightest*, meaning thereby *nearly straight*, *more nearly straight*, *most nearly straight*. But comparisons of this sort should not be employed to excess.

In using adjectives in the comparative degree we must be careful to use the word *other* so as to exclude

the first object from the group of objects with which it is to be compared:—

“Helen was quicker than any girl in her class” is not correct, because “any girl in her class” includes “Helen,” and she cannot be quicker than herself. But if we say, “Helen was quicker than any other girl in her class,” the word *other* excludes *Helen* from the group of girls with whom she is compared.

In using the superlative degree, however, the first object must be included in the group with which it is compared; as, “Helen is the quickest of all the girls in her class.” If we should use the word *other* our statement would be untrue.

FORMS OF PRONOUNS AFTER COMPARISONS

In making comparisons the verb is often omitted after the conjunctions *than* or *as*. In such instances the proper pronoun may be found by supplying the omitted verb; as—

He can read better than I [can].

I can read better than he [can].

He can read better than she [can].

He can read as well as they [can].

Exercise 150

In what degree of comparison is each of the following adjectives? Write the comparison of each:—

Less, famous, handsome, longer, sudden, firmer, bitter, like, ruddy, newest, safe, little, close, more transparent, icy, gray,

calm, plain, high, lofty, manly, greatest, most unpleasant, fine, dismal, low, next, large, fearful, gloomy, dark, fragrant, invisible, least.

Exercise 151

Use an appropriate adjective to describe each of the following nouns:—

Carpet, chair, water, spray, foam, hill, rocks, peaks, scenery, pain, fever, pride, field, river, boat, street, dust, ship, sails, mast, light, cry, stars, moon, eye, face, hand, work, frost, snow, rain, fog, wind, waves, butterfly, roses, diamonds, silver, dog, orange.

CHAPTER LVI

ARTICLES

Two adjectives of frequent use are the Definite Article *the* and the Indefinite Article *a* or *an*. *The* may be used with either singular or plural nouns. *A* or *an* is used with nouns in the singular number only.

A stands before words which begin with consonant sounds; as, *a boy, a man, a soldier, a united people*. Here you will notice that in the last example *a* stands before a word beginning with the letter *u*. But the initial sound of *united* is like that of *y* as in *young*.

An stands before words which begin with vowel sounds;¹ as, *an acorn, an eagle, an inch, an omnibus, an honest man*. You will notice that the last *an* stands

¹ See footnote (p. 110).

before the word *honest*, which is written with initial *h* but has an initial vowel sound, since the *h* is silent.

When an article stands before only the first of two or more connected nouns, it indicates that but one object is named; as, "The secretary and treasurer." But when an article stands before each of the nouns it indicates that different objects are named; as, "The secretary and the treasurer."

With adjectives the articles are similarly used. When the article stands before only the first of two or more connected adjectives it indicates that but one object is meant by the noun; as, "The brown and yellow leaf." But when the article is repeated with each of the adjectives it indicates that different objects are meant; as, "The brown and the yellow leaf." That is, two leaves, one brown and one yellow, are named.

An exception to this rule occurs when for the sake of emphasis the article is repeated before each noun or adjective of a series where only one object is meant; as, "The solemn, the stately, the majestic procession."

Exercise 152

Use *a* or *an* before each of the following words, and give reasons for your choice:—

Book, letter, newspaper, exception, table, journey, anchor, city, mountain, useful, sleigh, snow-storm, cloud, season, home, country, house, company, office, egg, fort, army, platform, opinion, cannon, undertaking, library, ink-bottle, year, union.

CHAPTER LVII

PRONOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

We have already discussed at some length the use of pronouns and adjectives. We now briefly notice a class of words which are used sometimes as pronouns and sometimes as adjectives. Some grammarians call such words **Pronominal Adjectives**, and others, **Adjective Pronouns**. These include **Relative Adjectives**, **Interrogative Adjectives**, **Indefinite Adjectives**, and **Demonstrative Adjectives**.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

The relative pronouns *which* and *what* are sometimes used as adjectives. For example,—

I do not know *which* piece of work to do first.

It does not matter so much *what* work you do as how well you do it.

Which and *what* when used thus with nouns are called **Relative Adjectives**.

Exercise 153

Write ten sentences, each containing a relative adjective.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

The interrogative pronouns *which* and *what* have a similar use; as,—

Which part of the programme did you like best?

What sound was that?

Which and *what* when so used are called **Interrogative Adjectives**.

Exercise 154

In which of the following sentences are *which* and *what* used as pronouns and in which as adjectives?

1. What did you say?
2. What book have you in your hand?
3. Which of these books is yours?
4. Which train goes to Boston?
5. What is the delay?

Exercise 155

Write ten sentences, each containing an interrogative adjective.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

There is another class of pronouns that represent objects so indefinitely that they are called **Indefinite Pronouns**. Many of them may be used as adjectives, and when so used they are called **Indefinite Adjectives**. Compare these sentences:—

1. Each boy did his best.
2. Each did his best.
3. Both sailors were Englishmen.
4. Both were Englishmen.

In which sentences are *each* and *both* used as pronouns, and why? In which are they used as adjectives, and why?

The following list contains some of the indefinite pronouns in most common use:—

All, any, another, both, certain, each, each other, either, few, many, none, neither, one, other, one another, several, some, such.

All the pronouns of the foregoing list except *each other* and *one another* may be used as adjectives. These are sometimes called Reciprocal Pronouns. There are other indefinite pronouns, such as *every one*, *everything*, *everybody*, *any one*, *anything*, *anybody*, *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *somebody*, *some one*, and *something*, that cannot be used as adjectives because they cannot be used to modify nouns.

Grammarians do not precisely agree as to the words properly to be classed here, for the number of words that are used sometimes as adjectives, sometimes as nouns, and sometimes as indefinite pronouns is considerable.

Exercise 156

In the following sentences explain whether the words in italics are used as pronouns or as adjectives:—

1. *Either* course of action presents difficulties.
2. Have you *any other* to suggest?
3. Have *all* the boys come?
4. Here are six, but are there *others*?
5. *Some* are coming to-morrow.
6. In *such* weather we must try to find *some* dry place.
7. *Each* man here must do his duty.
8. Do not try to hide behind *one another*.

9. They see *none* of us, I am sure.
10. *Any* man that tries to run away disgraces himself.
11. You may keep *all* you find.
12. *Few* are worth keeping.
13. Have you found *any* yet?
14. Neither of us can find *anything*.
15. Here is *one*.
16. There is *another*.
17. *Each* is somewhat damaged.

Exercise 157

Write ten sentences, using in each an indefinite adjective.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

Observe the use of *this* and *that* in the following sentences:—

1. This is your book. This book is yours.
2. That is his apple. That apple is his.

It is clear that *this* and *that* in the first sentence of each pair are pronouns, because they represent objects without naming them. *This* refers to objects near at hand; *that* to objects farther away. Since they point out definitely the objects to which they refer they are called **Demonstrative¹ Pronouns**.

In the second sentence of each pair the demonstrative pronoun becomes an adjective because it is used to modify the meaning of the noun. Demonstrative

¹ *Demonstrative* is derived from a Latin word which means *to point out*.

pronouns when used as adjectives are called **Demonstrative Adjectives**.

These and *those*, the plural forms of *this* and *that*, must agree in number with the nouns they modify. We sometimes hear the expressions, "These kind of people," "Those sort of things." What is wrong in each instance?

Be careful not to use *them* for *those* in such cases as "Where are those books?" "Have you seen those boys?"

Exercise 158

In the following sentences tell when *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* are pronouns and when they are adjectives:—

1. We must do *that* if we can.
2. *That* is more than we can do.
3. *That* work is too hard.
4. *This* train goes at nine o'clock.
5. Is *this* the train for Boston?
6. No, *this* is the train for Montreal.
7. *These* exercises are easy.
8. *These* are easy exercises.
9. *Those* are the best grapes.
10. *Those* grapes in the basket are better than *these*.
11. Do *these* grapes cost much more than *those*?

Exercise 159

Write ten sentences, using in each a demonstrative adjective.

CHAPTER LVIII

A REVIEW

What is the difference between a noun and a pronoun? To illustrate this difference write five sentences, each containing both a noun and a pronoun.

When is a pronoun in the first person? In the second person? In the third person? Decline the personal pronouns of the first, second, and third persons. Name the possessive pronouns.

Define a relative pronoun. What is meant by the antecedent of a relative pronoun? Name the relative pronouns and illustrate their use by putting each of them into a sentence. In each of your sentences point out the antecedent, the relative clause, and the main clause.

Write three sentences, each containing an explanatory relative clause; also three containing restrictive relative clauses. Which of these relative clauses must be set off from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas?

In what two respects is *what* unlike the other relative pronouns? Write five sentences in each of which you use *what* as a relative.

What are the interrogative pronouns? Why so called? Use each of them in two interrogative sentences.

Define an adjective. Compare the following adjectives: *Good, true, honest, manly, noble, earnest,*

sincere, industrious. Write three sentences, each containing an adjective in the positive degree; three containing adjectives in the comparative degree; and three containing adjectives in the superlative degree.

Why is *the* called the definite article, and *a* or *an* the indefinite article? What is the difference in the use of *a* and *an*? Illustrate this difference by writing each of these articles before ten words.

Write three sentences to illustrate each of the following pronouns used as an adjective: A relative pronoun, an interrogative pronoun, an indefinite pronoun, and a demonstrative pronoun.

Why are the demonstrative pronouns so called? What is the difference in the meaning of the demonstrative and the indefinite pronouns?

CHAPTER LIX

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS¹

In Chapter XIII we learned that a verb is a word that makes an assertion, and that there must be a verb expressed or implied in every sentence we speak or write. It is therefore important to study verbs in more detail, for when verbs are once mastered most of the difficulties of grammar disappear.

You will remember that a transitive verb must express action, and that it must take an object to complete its meaning. Unless these two things are true of

¹ Review Chapters XIII, XIV, XV, XVI.

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any verb it is intransitive. Remember that although most intransitive verbs express action they do not require objects to complete their meaning. Furthermore, the same verb may sometimes be used as a transitive verb in one sentence and as an intransitive verb in another.

Exercise 160

Select all the verbs in the following paragraph and write them in two columns. In one column place the transitive verbs, and in the other the intransitive:—

An American ignorant of French often finds some difficulty when travelling in the country districts of France. He asks the way to a cathedral, and he mistakes the names of the streets. He loses his baggage, and he has trouble in explaining what he has lost. He goes to a hotel and orders strange dishes. The dishes he gets are probably not what he expects. He wastes money on cabs. He has daily trials of his patience. He wishes a hundred times for the gift of tongues. He despises the people who do not understand him. They appear so stupid to him. They listen politely enough, but they know nothing of his meaning, though they pretend to follow every word.

Exercise 161

Construct two sentences for each of the following words. In the first sentence use the word as a transitive verb, and in the second, as an intransitive verb:—

Draw, hide, ring, begin, choose, break, bend, shake, catch, cut, feel, speak, hear, teach, sting, wind, burn, watch, see.

CHAPTER LX

VOICE

We have learned that all transitive verbs express action. We now observe two distinctly different ways in which the verb expresses the action as related to the subject. This difference is clearly illustrated in the following sentences:—

1. The fisherman caught a trout.
2. A trout was caught by the fisherman.

In the first sentence the subject *fisherman* is the actor, and the object *trout* is the receiver of the action. In the second sentence the fisherman is again the actor and the trout is the receiver of the action, but the word *fisherman* is not the subject of the verb *was caught*. The subject is *trout*. In the first sentence *trout* receives the action as the object of the verb. In the second sentence, although *trout* receives the action, it receives it as the subject of the verb.

The verb *caught* is said to be in the **Active Voice**, because the subject is the actor, and the verb *was caught* is said to be in the **Passive Voice**, because the subject is the receiver of the action. Hence we say:—

A verb indicating that the subject is the actor is in the Active Voice.

A verb indicating that the subject is the receiver of the action is in the Passive Voice.

In the two sentences used for illustration observe that the same verb is used, but with a change in the form of expression.

Exercise 162

Why are the verbs in the following sentences in the active voice? Rewrite them, and change the verbs from the active to the passive voice. Explain in every case what changes you make:—

1. He drove our coach rapidly down the narrow road.
2. Above us on the hills we heard the roar of the storm.
3. Again the driver lashed the horses.
4. But he frightened them with his blows.
5. By accident he dropped his whip.
6. Then he stopped the coach and picked up his whip.
7. Suddenly a great rolling stone blocked the path.
8. Serious danger now threatened us.
9. But an army engineer, with the help of the other passengers, rolled away the stone.
10. The rest of the trip we made without other accident.

Exercise 163

Why are the verbs in the following sentences in the passive voice? Rewrite the sentences, and change the verbs to the active voice. Explain all changes:—

1. The hall was filled with a noisy crowd.
2. The speaker was greeted with hisses by the mob.
3. At times he was interrupted by shouting and applauding boys.
4. After a half-hour he was compelled by the growing tumult to break off his speech.
5. While bathing at the beach yesterday Judge Medway was seriously injured by a huge wave.
6. He was carried by his companions to the nearest hotel.

7. As soon as possible he was examined by Dr. Streeter.
8. Late in the morning he was taken by four attendants to the hospital in an ambulance.

Exercise 164

Use each of the following verbs in two sentences. In the first sentence use the verb in the active voice; in the second, in the passive:—

Catch, carry, print, break, call, cut, burn, wrap, take, blow, strike, climb, gain, tell, eat, spread, shoot, chase, paint, build, carve, measure.

Exercise 165

Tell whether the verbs in the following sentences are in the active or the passive voice, and why. Change the voice of each verb, and in every case rewrite the entire sentence. What changes in form are necessary?

1. Health filled every fibre of his body.
2. The sparrows beat the windows with their wings.
3. Every afternoon the little girl was taken to the beach by her father.
4. The major was struck by a heavy piece of timber.
5. The schoolmaster received the letter at ten o'clock.
6. Our grapes were spoiled by the frost last week.
7. Eight men rowed the heavy boat.
8. A strong northwest wind soon drove the clouds out of sight.
9. Three boys were bitten by a dog this morning.
10. Five fishermen drew the net to the shore.

11. The diver was lifted off his feet by a huge wave.
12. Two delegates were appointed by the committee.

Since in all changes from the active to the passive the word which was the object of the verb in the active voice becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice, it follows that intransitive verbs, which of course have no object, can have no passive form. Hence, none but transitive verbs have a passive voice. On the other hand, any verb that cannot be changed into the passive form is intransitive.

Though intransitive verbs in general take no object, some verbs that are essentially intransitive may take an object with a meaning similar to the meaning of the verb, as—

He lived a busy life.

He dreamed a strange dream.

Such an object is called a *Cognate Object*.

Sometimes by placing a preposition after an intransitive verb we may make a verb-phrase that takes an object like a transitive verb. For example, "The dogs *barked at him*." Intransitive verbs thus combined with prepositions may be used in the passive, as, "He *was barked at* by dogs."

Exercise 166

Put into sentences the following intransitive verbs. Then note why you find it impossible to use these verbs in the passive.

Go, laugh, weep, die, shine, bloom, twitter, sleep, arrive, rise, smile, become, appear, seem, wait, perish, flow, wander:—

Exercise 167

Write sentences containing the following verb-phrases in passive form:—

Look at, hoot at, laugh at, laugh down, look upon, talk about, glance at, listen to, attend to.

Exercise 168, for Review

Construct six sentences, using in each a copulative verb. In three of them use a predicate noun, and in the others a predicate adjective.

CHAPTER LXI

TENSE

Examine the verbs in the following sentences:—

1. The army *marches*.
2. The army *marched*.
3. The army *will march*.

In each of these sentences the same kind of action is expressed. The only difference is in the time when the action of marching takes place. In the first sentence the verb asserts the action as taking place in present time; in the second, it asserts the action as taking place in past time; and in the third, it asserts that the action will take place in future time.

The same verb, then, is used to express the same action in all the sentences; but the verb changes its form to denote a change in the time of the action.

The indication of time by the form of the verb is called Tense.

The verb *marches* is said to be in the **Present Tense** because it expresses action that takes place at the present time.

The Present Tense indicates present time.

The present tense sometimes expresses a general truth; as, "Fire melts wax," "Three times four are twelve." It also states what is customary or habitual; as, "The President of the United States issues a Thanksgiving proclamation every year," "The people of the United States elect a President every four years."

In order to make a narrative more vivid, historians and other writers sometimes represent past events as taking place in present time. The present tense when so used is called the **Historical Present**. For example,—

In his cramped position the spy sits, busily filling his notebooks. Now he counts the tents, now he draws an outline map of the camp. He hears a footfall and crouches closer to the ground. Then he stealthily crawls to the rear and makes his way to a safer position.

The present tense is often used to indicate future time. For example, "We sail to-morrow," "I am going to England next summer," instead of "We shall sail to-morrow," "I shall go to England next summer."

This use of the present tense to express future time is as old as the English language. In the oldest English the future had

no special tense-form, and the future meaning was regularly expressed by the present tense.

The verb *marched* is said to be in the **Past Tense** because it expresses action that took place in past time.

The Past Tense indicates past time.

By past tense we mean simply indefinite past time. For simplicity we use the term **past** rather than **preterite**.

The verb *will march* is said to be in the **Future Tense** because it expresses action that will take place in future time.

The Future Tense indicates future time.

Exercise 169

In what tense are the verbs in the following sentences? Using *he* as subject, write in corresponding columns the present, the past, and the future tense of each verb:—

1. The Golf Club has seventy members.
2. The Club House is a handsome building.
3. Members pay twenty dollars a year, but the initiation fee, with other expenses, amounts to a hundred dollars.
4. Each member has the privilege of inviting ten friends on special occasions.
5. Our greatest day is in June.
6. People come up from New York for single games.
7. Our best player practises four hours a day.

Exercise 170

In what tense are the verbs in the following sentences? Using *he* as subject, write in corresponding columns the present, the past, and the future tense of each verb:—

1. We went on Tuesday to see Bunker Hill Monument.
2. On the way I bought some books at a very low price.
3. The bookseller had them bound handsomely.
4. On Thursday morning we took the train for New York.
5. The car was overheated, as usual.
6. As a result I caught a severe cold, to remind me of my trip to Boston.
7. In New York we spent the first day at the hotel.
8. On Tuesday we attended an open-air concert.
9. We enjoyed most of all a sail to Sandy Hook.

Exercise 171, for Review

Select the verbs in the following sentences. What is the subject of each? Is the verb transitive or intransitive? How do you know? In what tense is it, and how can you tell?

1. David raised his eyes.
2. Before him he saw a little girl.
3. She shyly covered one bare foot with the other.
4. Then in a gentle voice she asked the way to the beach.
5. "Take the first road to the left," said David, "and it will bring you straight to the beach. Are you looking for somebody?"
6. "Yes, I have lost my little brother. He wandered away from home yesterday morning."
7. David watched the little girl's eyes.
8. They had a troubled expression.
9. In an instant he formed a plan.
10. He called to one of the servants, "Harness the bay mare as soon as you can."

11. Five minutes later a handsome horse with a light carriage stood at the door.

12. "Climb up to the seat, little girl," said he.

13. "I think I know where your little brother is."

14. He spoke to the horse, and drove rapidly down the lane.

15. Two hours later he returned with two rosy faces beaming beside him.

CHAPTER LXII

PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS

We have considered the person and number of nouns and pronouns (pp. 109–114). We must now see what changes verbs undergo when there is a change in the person and number of the subject. Note the following verb-forms:—

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR

1. I am
2. You are (thou art)
3. He is

1. I move
2. You move¹ (thou movest)
3. He moves

PLURAL

1. We are
2. You are
3. They are

1. We move
2. You move
3. They move

NOTE.—*The forms of the solemn style have been added for completeness, but they need not be made prominent.*

¹ In such verbs as *move* the ending *est* with the subject *thou* in the second person singular was once common in everyday speech, but it is now confined chiefly to the language of prayer and poetry. The same is true of *eth* in the third person singular. The endings *est* and *eth* occur frequently

You here observe that the form of the verb in several instances changes whenever there is a change in the person and number of its subject. In other words, the *form* of the verb depends upon the person and number of its *subject*. *Am* must be used with the subject *I*, and since *I* is in the first person, singular number, the verb *am* is also said to be in the first person, singular number, to **agree with the subject**. How many different verb-forms do you find here? What are they?

In the past tense of the first of these two verbs there is (if we disregard the thou-forms) only one change in the form to denote a change in person and number, and in the second verb there is no change.

PAST TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I was	1. We were
2. You were { (thou wast) (thou wert)	2. You were
3. He was	3. They were
1. I moved	1. We moved
2. You moved (thou movedst)	2. You moved
3. He moved	3. They moved

Most verbs are inflected like *move*.

in the Bible. *You* in the second person singular is *plural* in *form*, but it is *singular* in *sense*, and is regularly used in place of *thou* in ordinary language, but always with the plural form of the verb. *Thou art* was formerly used in ordinary speech, but it is now found only in the older, solemn style. *Ye* for *you* is used in the solemn style.

We see, then, that (except for the endings *est* and *eth*) the only change to indicate agreement with the subject in person and number is the addition of *s* (*es*) in the third person singular of the present tense.

Exercise 172

In what person and number is each of the following verbs, and why?

You see. He heard. They knew. You promised. I swung. He swam. They sleep. You will walk. She teaches. I learn. We play. He threw. Will they run? Who speaks? The boat leaked. The wind blew a gale. The clouds hung dark over the mountains.

Exercise 173

Write the third person singular number of each of the following verbs in both the present and the past tense. In each case use *he* as subject of the verb.

Lead, have, say, hang, build, go, hold, accept, succeed, read, sleep, obey, walk, write, see, shake, steal, cost, hurt, shine, catch, think, believe, leap, keep, complete, shatter, ride, live, send.

Exercise 174

Use each of the verbs in the preceding exercise with the pronoun *thou* as subject.

DON'T FOR DOESN'T

A large proportion of the errors in grammar arise from a failure to make a verb agree with its subject. Sometimes, for example, *don't* is incorrectly used with a singular subject instead of *doesn't*.

Always use *doesn't* (not *don't*) when the subject is in the third person, singular number.

Compare the following correct and incorrect forms:—

CORRECT

INCORRECT

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. He <i>doesn't</i> see well. | He <i>don't</i> see well. |
| 2. She <i>doesn't</i> dress in good taste. | She <i>don't</i> dress in good taste. |
| 3. It <i>doesn't</i> seem true. | It <i>don't</i> seem true. |

Exercise 175

Fill out the blanks in each sentence with *doesn't* or *don't*, and give reasons for your choice:—

1. George —— play base-ball.
2. He —— like America.
3. These books —— please most readers.
4. That table —— stand firmly.
5. My watch —— go well since I dropped it.
6. The weather —— seem promising.
7. —— you think this exercise a very easy one?
8. It —— seem to call for much thinking.
9. A careless pupil —— observe things that are very evident.
10. As a result he —— make rapid progress and —— enjoy his school-work.

YOU WAS FOR YOU WERE

Another mistake is the use of *You was* for *You were*, when but one person is meant.

In the eighteenth century *You was*, for the second person singular, was commonly used by the best speakers and writers, but it is no longer in accord with good usage.

Exercise 176

Write five declarative sentences, beginning each with "You were," and five interrogative sentences, beginning each with "Were you."

NOTE.—*In connection with this chapter Exercise 143 (p. 132) should be carefully studied again.*

CHAPTER LXIII

SPECIAL RULES FOR PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS

Having studied the general rule for the agreement of verbs in person and number with their subjects, you may well give attention to a few special applications of this rule. The following are to be noted:—

1. Two nouns or pronouns connected by *and* usually have a plural verb agreeing with them; as, "The organ grinder and the woman with him were Italians."

2. Two singular nouns connected by *or*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, require a verb in the singular; as, "Either Helen or her mother is ready to help us out of the difficulty," "Neither James nor John was able to reach the train in time."

3. Collective nouns, though singular in form, denote more than one object, and may therefore take a plural verb.

For example:—

A number of trees have been cut down on the school grounds.
The committee are not agreed.

But when the separate objects are considered as a unit the verb should be singular.

For example:—

The number of trees remaining is surprisingly large.
The committee is in session.

In other words, if the various objects named by the collective nouns are thought of as individuals the verb must be in the plural number. In these, as in all other difficult cases of agreement, you must decide whether the subject really denotes but one thing or more than one. Hence—

If the subject is *singular in sense*, a singular verb must be used; but if the subject is *plural in sense*, a plural verb must be used.

4. In determining the agreement of the verb, you should take no account of words that come between the subject and the predicate.

For example:—

Every one of these men has (not *have*) to work for a living.
The labor of thousands of men was (not *were*) required to rear the pyramids.

A young man, with his mother and three brothers, was walking down the street.

The early study of arithmetic and geography is important.

5. As remarked above, two or more singular subjects connected by *and* commonly take a plural verb. But when the subjects are modified by *each* or *every* the verb is singular. For example:—

Each town and city throughout the country has to meet this question.

Every tree and bush was levelled to the ground.

Exercise 177

Fill the blanks with verb-forms of the proper number, and in every case explain why the verb is in the singular or plural:—

1. A man and a boy —— picking apples.
2. The first day and the fifth —— much alike.
3. A man or a boy —— picking apples in our orchard.
4. Neither running nor dancing —— permitted.
5. Tom and Arthur —— together in the hall.
6. Either the work or the worry —— more than he could stand.
7. Our football team —— very good this year.
8. The entire company —— here.
9. All the company —— here.
10. His family —— at the seashore all summer.
11. That handsome pair of horses —— to my uncle.
12. The committee —— agreed.
13. A regiment —— marching through the street.
14. The band —— playing.
15. A raft and a sailboat —— in sight.
16. Your knowledge of language and grammar —— increasing.

Exercise 178

Fill the blanks with verbs of proper number, and in every case explain why the verb is in the singular or the plural form:—

1. In Africa the summers ——— very hot.
2. Tropical countries ——— many strange plants and animals.
3. One of the strangest animals I ——— ever seen ——— the ant-eater.
4. He ——— a long, sticky tongue with which he ——— the ants.
5. I ——— not know how many years he ———.
6. Some other tropical animals ——— of enormous size.
7. Last October we ——— at the menagerie.
8. We ——— interested to see how the lions ———.
9. They ——— in a great cage with strong iron bars.
10. I ——— not afraid, but we ——— as well satisfied when we ——— on our way home again.

CHAPTER LXIV

VERBAL NOUNS

THE INFINITIVE

Thus far we have considered the verb as *that part of the sentence which makes an assertion about the subject*. But there are some verb-forms that do not assert action or being. They merely name it. These verb-forms are the **Infinitive** and the **Participle**. Let us first give our attention to the Infinitive.

1. The captain wishes *to reach* the harbor before night.
2. *To work* hard without immediate success is sometimes discouraging.
3. Learn *to labor* and *to wait*.
4. Strive *to do* well whatever you do at all.

In the first sentence the verb *wishes* is in the third person, singular number, to agree with its subject *captain*. If you change the subject to *they*, the form of the verb must also change to agree with *they* in person and number.

Now examine *to reach*. Although it expresses action, it does not assert this action about any subject, and therefore does not change its form to express person and number. Being thus unchanged in form it is called the **Infinitive**.¹ It is like a verb, however, because it takes the noun *harbor* as its object and is modified by the adverbial phrase *before night*.

In the second sentence the infinitive *to work* is like a verb because it is modified by the adverb *hard*, and the infinitive *to do* in the fourth sentence is like a verb because it is modified by the adverb *well*.

The infinitive, therefore, is like a verb because (1) it expresses action, (2) (if transitive) it can take an object, and (3) it can be modified by an adverb.

Looking again at the first sentence, you will find that *to reach* is used like a noun because it is the direct object of the transitive verb *wishes*. In the second sentence *to work* is used like a noun because it is the

¹ From a Latin word meaning *indefinite, unlimited*.

subject of *is*. In the third sentence *to labor* and *to wait* are treated like nouns because they are used as the direct objects of the verb *learn*. The infinitive therefore is like a noun because it can be used as the subject or the object of a verb.

Because the infinitive is used partly like a verb and partly like a noun it is called a Verbal Noun.

Except when used with certain verbs the infinitive consists of the infinitive sign *to* and the simple form of the verb. The sign *to* is not really a part of the infinitive, but is a preposition. For convenience, however, we now speak of it as a part of the infinitive.

The sign *to* is usually omitted after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *help*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *please*, *see*, *watch*, and some others, when they are in the active voice.

A group of words introduced by the infinitive is called an Infinitive Phrase.

Exercise 179

Find the infinitives, and note the omission of the sign *to*. Point out the infinitive phrases:—

Please come here a moment and see this strange animal run up the tree. I can hear him claw the bark. The sound made me shiver at first. Will you help me lift this branch? Now let it come down slowly, so as to hide us. I hardly dare stay here any longer. You need not say you are not afraid. Can you feel the branch tremble as he mounts? What! is it nothing but a cat? Well, another time I hope I shall be brave enough to watch a cat climb a tree!

VERBAL NOUNS IN *ing*

The verbal noun in *ing* is often called an infinitive. The term is accurate enough, but for our purpose the term verbal noun seems simpler. The verbal noun is formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb. The verbal noun may be modified by an adjective or an adverb. For example,—

Too *rapid* working leads to mistakes (*adjective*).

Working too *rapidly* leads to mistakes (*adverb*).

The verbal noun may take a direct or an indirect object like a verb. For example,—

In painting a *portrait* every line is important.

By giving *him* money we induced him to go away.

Exercise 180

Find the infinitives and the verbal nouns in *ing*. Point out the infinitive phrases:—

1. May I take the liberty of inviting you to visit me in Boston?
2. Before packing your trunk, go to see the tourist agent.
3. He will be glad to show you how to escape all annoyance in crossing the city.
4. My brother insists on my taking a cab at the station.
5. His way of managing is certainly very simple and saves time.
6. You will be able to see the principal sights in a week.
7. Everybody ought to go at least once to the Bunker Hill Monument.

8. You should spend one morning in visiting the Art Museum and the Public Library.

9. But I will not undertake to tell all that there is to see.

Exercise 181

From the following verbs form the infinitives and verbal nouns in *ing*. Use five of them as subjects of verbs; five as objects of verbs:—

Promise, love, rise, grow, write, walk, enjoy, fish, run, read, speak, eat, work, seek, find, whistle, make, spend, catch, spring, jump, know, sing, freeze, wash.

Exercise 182

Write the verbal nouns in *ing* derived from the following verbs:—

Forget, forsake, freeze, have, heave, hide, keep, knit, leave, let, lie, lose, pay, pen, put, rid, run, seethe, sell, shape, shave, shine, shoe.

Exercise 183

Fill out the blanks with infinitives or with verbal nouns in *ing*:—

1. I had no opportunity —— him.
2. When he returns I shall hope —— him.
3. The visitor began —— with his fingers on the table.
4. I am obliged —— the train at once.
5. I dislike —— here without anything ——.
6. We prefer —— to the station.
7. But we do not refuse —— with you.
8. He is accustomed —— when the weather is good.

9. The clouds made it difficult —— the top of the mountain.

10. Most of us like —— things in order.

11. The train arrived too late for me —— the steamer.

12. I am sorry —— that I must stay here another week.

In many cases there is little to choose between the infinitive and the verbal noun in *ing* as a means of expression. For example, "Most people dislike to work (working) in the dark." Sometimes, however, only one of these forms of expression is possible. For instance, "I recollect seeing that man a year ago," but not, "I recollect to see that man a year ago."

Exercise 184

Change the infinitives to verbal nouns in *ing*, and the verbal nouns in *ing* to infinitives:—

1. I should like to learn another trade.
2. His chief occupation was to imitate the birds.
3. We intend to build a new house.
4. To spend money wisely is not always easy.
5. To find good illustrations for this exercise requires time.
6. The workmen began to cut down the trees this morning.
7. He likes working as much as playing.
8. In that country riding on horseback is harder than going afoot.
9. Many people dislike attending to business in hot weather.
10. Reading aloud is sometimes less tiresome than listening to others.

VARIOUS USES OF THE INFINITIVE

We have found (p. 173) that the infinitive may be used as a noun and may be the subject or the object of a verb. The infinitive may also be used (1) as a predicate noun, (2) as a complement, (3) as an adjective, (4) as an adverb, and (5) in an absolute construction.

1. The infinitive as a predicate noun.

His greatest desire was *to go* to Europe.

2. The infinitive as a complement.¹

He might *go* now.

We used *to attend* the concerts in Berlin.

I am compelled *to think* so.

3. The infinitive as an adjective.

There is always some sweeping *to do*.

He has no money *to waste*.

There is a lesson *to learn*.

4. The infinitive may be used as an adverb.

(1.) To modify verbs.

We went *to see* the pictures.

(2.) To modify adjectives.

I am unwilling *to give* anything.

He is ready *to go*.

This apple is too sour *to eat*.

¹ See page 231.

(3.) To modify an adverb.

He is rich enough *to build* a large house.

5. The infinitive in the absolute construction. Sometimes the infinitive has no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence, as—

To tell the truth, the company is not very prosperous.

An infinitive used in this way is said to be used absolutely.

The infinitive preceded by a noun or pronoun in the objective case may be used after many verbs. Such an infinitive is equivalent to a clause. For example we may say, "We expected *him to come* last evening," or, "We expected *that he would come last evening.*" *Him* is here said to be the **subject** of the infinitive, though of course the infinitive never changes its form to agree with any word. See page 172.

NOTE.—*Some of the more difficult uses of the infinitive are purposely omitted.*

Exercise 185

Explain how each infinitive and verbal noun in *ing* in Exercise 184 resembles a verb and how each resembles a noun.

CHAPTER LXV

THE PARTICIPLE A VERBAL ADJECTIVE

A verb-form that in appearance is exactly like the verbal noun in *ing* behaves very differently in actual use.

Examine the italicized words in the following sentences:—

1. We saw men *running* rapidly along the shore.
2. The sailors soon left their boats *anchored* in the harbor.
3. We observed a boy *sitting* on the sand and eagerly *reading* "Robinson Crusoe."

In the first sentence *running* is a verb-form, and is like a verb because it expresses action. It is also modified by the adverb *rapidly* and by the adverbial phrase *along the shore*. But it is unlike a verb because it has no subject. We know that the verb in the sentence is *saw* because it makes an assertion about its subject *we*. But *running*, although it is derived from the verb *run* and expresses action, makes no assertion about any subject. Moreover, it is used like an adjective in describing the noun *men*.

In the second sentence *anchored* is a verb-form derived from the verb *anchor*, and is modified by the adverbial phrase *in the harbor*. But since it describes the noun *boats* it has also the force of an adjective.

In what respect is *sitting* like a verb? In what respect is it like an adjective? What adverb modifies *reading*? What noun is its object?

From these examples we see that these italicized words resemble both verbs and adjectives.

We have, then, the definition:—

A verb-form that is used partly like a verb and partly like an adjective is called a Participle.

There are two simple participles, the Present Participle and the Past Participle.

The Present Participle denotes action as incomplete.

It is sometimes called the **Imperfect Participle** because it refers to unfinished action.

The Past Participle denotes action that is past or complete.

It is sometimes called the **Perfect Participle** because it refers to complete action.

Besides the two simple participles there are three compound participles. They are formed by combining a past participle with *being*, *having*, or *having been*; as, *having moved*, *being moved*, or *having been moved*.

Participles formed with *being* and *having been* are found only in the passive voice, and do not belong to intransitive verbs.

A group of words introduced by a participle is called a Participial Phrase.

As you may observe in Exercise 187, participial phrases are often set off from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas.

Exercise 186

Form all the participles from the following verbs:—

Sell, build, offer, use, carry, give, hold, call, find, take, feel, slay, swell, glow, warm, flush, change, tremble, shake, heave, pant, cut, beat, melt, turn, touch, kindle, sting, quicken, raise, sharpen, stun, rivet, flash, foam.

Exercise 187

Why are the words in italics participles? Indicate clearly how they are like verbs and how like adjectives:—

1. Dover has a harbor *protected* by a breakwater.
2. *Having* already *waited* an hour, Danton sat *drumming* his fingers on the table.

3. A little brook, *glancing* in the sunshine, ran *winding* through the meadow.

4. *Rustling* in the breeze, the leaves in the high branches seemed to whisper a welcome.

5. *Propped* against a tree, Manton swung his lantern and called for help.

6. The deer ran through the water and, *facing* about, dashed off at full speed.

7. One day Nelson, *having secured* a quantity of corn to grind and *knowing* that the roads were bad, set out at sunrise.

8. The entire party, *consisting* of thirty persons, made the journey in four days.

9. *Marching* to music, the procession entered the great church.

10. The hyenas and jackals fought constantly, *growling*, *laughing*, *chattering*, and *howling* without intermission.

11. Next morning we saw a lion *dragging* a heavy load up the river bank.

12. *Continuing* our advance, we presently heard dogs *barking*.

13. My followers were glad to see me *returning*.

14. I had lain *watching* the animals for four hours.

15. Claude stood *looking* at the floor.

Exercise 188

What are the participial phrases in the preceding exercise?

Exercise 189

Point out the participles, and tell in every case the noun or pronoun which the participle modifies:—

Rising with a sudden movement, the old boatman stood watching the sunset. Far in the distance lay the river winding until it lost itself among the hills. Before him ran troops of children, shouting and laughing as they played. But he heard them not. His thoughts dwelt on a day long past when he came home, leading his bride to the very door where he now stood. He looked about the little cottage. There was the old clock still ticking busily that she used to wind. There was the old armchair where she used to sit knitting, knitting. Every object reminded him of the early years when he was a young giant, towering head and shoulders above his fellows and the envy of all who knew him. "No, I'll not think of those years," said he, brushing a tear from his eye. Then, whistling for his dog, he strode down the hill to the river.

Exercise 190

What are the participial phrases in the preceding exercise which are set off by commas? Write ten participial phrases.

CHAPTER LXVI

THE VERBAL NOUN AND THE PARTICIPLE

We must now distinguish more carefully the verbal noun in *ing* from the participle in *ing*.

Examine closely the italicized words:—

1. *Rowing* is good exercise.
2. Do you like *rowing*?
3. After *rowing* our boat for a mile we began to fish.
4. Our friend saw us *rowing* down stream.

In the first example *rowing* is the subject of the verb *is*, and is therefore a noun. In the second example it is also a noun used as the object of the verb *do like*. In the third it is the object of the preposition *after*. But in the fourth it is an adjective modifying the pronoun *us*. Hence—

To distinguish a verbal noun in *ing* from a participle in *ing*, see whether the word is used as the subject of a verb, as a predicate nominative, as the object of a verb or of a preposition, or whether it is used as an adjective.

Exercise 191

Select all the participles and the verbal nouns in *ing*. Explain the case of the verbal nouns in *ing*, and tell what nouns or pronouns the participles modify. What objects and adverbial modifiers have the verbal nouns and the participles?

1. A bullet sped past, barely missing Kenyon's ear.
2. After arriving in London you will have little time for writing.
3. I can't help bringing in some mud from the street.
4. Covering his face with his hand, he marched out.
5. By covering his face he could remain undiscovered.
6. Gerson gave Manly a sudden push that sent the books flying to the floor.
7. "Come here," said the master, addressing Gerson.
8. An hour was occupied in preparing the lesson.
9. Suiting the action to the word, the pilot cut the rope.
10. He now steered more carefully, studying the chart and watching the compass in the box before him.

11. There was a strong feeling against buying and selling votes.
12. On examining the wound the surgeon found the injury to be slight.
13. Leaning back contentedly, he smiled at the new arrival.
14. The man lay groaning on the grass.
15. The art of entertaining is difficult.

Exercise 192, for Review

Write ten participial phrases. Write ten sentences, each containing participial phrases. Explain the use of each phrase.

Exercise 193, for Review

What is an infinitive phrase? Write ten such phrases. Write five sentences, each containing an infinitive phrase used as a noun; five sentences, each containing an infinitive phrase used as an adjective; and five, each containing an infinitive phrase used as an adverb.

Exercise 194, for Review

What is a prepositional phrase? Write ten such phrases. Write five sentences, each containing a prepositional phrase used as an adjective; also ten sentences, each containing a prepositional phrase used as an adverb.

Remember that in *form* phrases are divided into prepositional phrases, infinitive phrases, and participial phrases. In *use*, they may be noun-phrases, adjective phrases, or adverbial phrases.

CHAPTER LXVII

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

Verbs may be divided into two great classes according to the way in which they form their past tense. We consider first the most common method.

WEAK VERBS

Compare the italicized verb-forms in the following sentences:—

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
They <i>fish</i> now.	They <i>fished</i> yesterday.	They have <i>fished</i> .
They <i>work</i> now.	They <i>worked</i> yesterday.	They have <i>worked</i> .
They <i>hunt</i> now.	They <i>hunted</i> yesterday.	They have <i>hunted</i> .

Observe that the past tense and the past participle of these verbs are exactly the same, and that each is formed by adding *ed* to the present.

If for the verbs *fish*, *work*, *hunt*, the verbs *love*, *smile*, or *hope* be substituted—all of which end in *e*—the past tense and the past participle will be formed by adding only *d* to the present.

Some verbs, like *feel*, *sleep*, add *t* instead of *ed* or *d* to form the past tense and the past participle.

Most verbs form the past tense by adding the endings *ed*, *d*, or *t* to the present. Such verbs are called **Weak Verbs**. These verbs are very numerous, and, largely for that reason, are often called **Regular Verbs**. This name is, however, not very accurate.

Exercise 195

Write in the third person plural the present tense and the past tense of the following verbs:—

Sharpen, stir, arouse, please, suffer, grieve, mourn, enjoy, bless, charm, create, afford, delight, bewitch, flatter, treat, amuse, satisfy, attract, interest, provide, comfort, cause, sweep, bend, bereave, dwell, have, hear, send.

STRONG VERBS

There is another group of verbs, much smaller in number yet very frequently in use, that form the past tense in another way. Note the following verbs:—

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
They <i>see</i> now.	They <i>saw</i> yesterday.	They have <i>seen</i> .
They <i>run</i> now.	They <i>ran</i> yesterday.	They have <i>run</i> .
They <i>sing</i> now.	They <i>sang</i> yesterday.	They have <i>sung</i> .
They <i>write</i> now.	They <i>wrote</i> yesterday.	They have <i>written</i> .

Here we see that the past tense is formed, not by adding *ed*, *d*, or *t* to the present, but by making a change in the vowel of the present. Such verbs are called **Strong Verbs**.

A Strong Verb forms its past tense, not by adding an ending to the present, but by changing its vowel.

Since less than a hundred strong verbs are now in use (if no account is taken of compounds) they are often called Irregular Verbs. They are, however, as regular in their way as the more numerous weak verbs. It is important to note that many of the verbs that add the endings *ed*, *d*, or *t*, show some irregularity.

Some verbs are partly strong and partly weak. In the Appendix you will find a list of verbs presenting various irregularities. In Chapter LXXIV special attention is called to some that are often misused and that require careful study.

As for the terms Strong and Weak, which are now in general use, we may in a sense say that the Strong Verbs are strong enough to form their past tense without the help of the endings *ed*, *d*, or *t*, whereas the Weak Verbs require the help of these endings in forming the past tense. This explanation must, however, be taken only as a convenient aid to your memory. A full explanation of the differences between the two kinds of verbs is too difficult to be presented here.

By some grammarians the weak verbs are called verbs of the **New Conjugation**, since they are largely derived from other words, such as nouns, adjectives, and so forth; and the strong verbs are called verbs of the **Old Conjugation**. The names are not a matter of much importance, but the distinction between the two great classes of verbs is something that deserves the most careful attention.

Exercise 196

Write the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle of the following verbs, and tell whether they are strong or weak:—

Soothe, soften, chew, sing, hold, shout, split, roar, bathe, shake, dance, throw, fret, follow, play, hope, feel, trust, draw, slay, swear, tread, rise.

NOTE.—*In the preparation of this and similar exercises the list of verbs in the Appendix should be consulted.*

CHAPTER LXVIII

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS

We have just seen that strong verbs form their past tense in one way and weak verbs in another. In most verbs the change from the present to the past tense is indicated by a change in the form. But this is not true of any other tense. The other tenses are formed by combining auxiliaries with the infinitive¹ or the past participle.

It is evident, then, that before we can form the various tenses of a verb we must know the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle. These three forms are called the **Principal Parts** of the verb.

Exercise 197

Write the principal parts of:—

Give, hold, look, tell, run, string, fight, stand, strike, burst, cry, ride, leap, wish, yearn, raise, rise, quench, spoil.

The past participle of weak verbs has the same form as the past tense. The past participle of a strong verb is that simple verb-form that can be combined with some form of *have* or *be* to make a verb-phrase. For example:—has *fallen*, have *ridden*, was *sunk*, was *stolen*, were *shown*.

¹ The form of the infinitive is always the same as that of the present indicative.

PRESENT, PAST, AND FUTURE TENSES 189

No general rule can be given that will cover all the methods of forming the past participle of strong verbs. In Old English the past participle of all strong verbs had the ending *n* or *en*, but this ending is retained by only about half of the surviving strong verbs.

Exercise 198

Write the proper form of the verbs in the preceding exercise to be used with *he has*.

Exercise 199

Write the past tense of the following verbs:—

Arise, begin, bite, blow, break, choose, draw, drink, fall, fly, flee, forget, grow, hide, lie, ride, rise, see, shake, show, sink, suit, sow, steal, strew, swell, swim, take, write.

CHAPTER LXIX

FORMS OF THE PRESENT, PAST, AND FUTURE TENSES

As was explained in an earlier chapter (p. 160), all action must take place in present, past, or future time. In every case the **form** of the verb depends upon the time referred to. For the present and the past tenses we use **simple forms** of the verb, but for the future we employ a **verb-phrase** made up of *shall* or *will* and the **infinitive** of a verb without the sign *to*.

Let us take the verb *tell* and see how we form the various numbers and persons of the present, past, and future tenses.

Using the personal pronouns as subjects, we arrange the forms as follows:—

Present Tense

SINGULAR

1. I tell
2. You tell (thou tellest)
3. He tells

PLURAL

1. We tell
2. You tell
3. They tell

Past Tense

1. I told
2. You told (thou toldest)
3. He told

1. We told
2. You told
3. They told

Future Tense

1. I shall tell
2. You will tell (thou wilt tell)
3. He will tell

1. We shall tell
2. You will tell
3. They will tell

CHAPTER LXX

SHALL AND WILL

The future tense, as already noted, consists of a verb-phrase formed by uniting *shall* or *will* with the infinitive without the sign *to*. To express simple future time *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons.

Simple Future

SINGULAR

1. I shall go
2. You will go (thou wilt go)
3. He will go

PLURAL

1. We shall go
2. You will go
3. They will go

If *will* takes the place of *shall* in the first person, and *shall* the place of *will* in the second and third persons, we no longer have simple future expressed. For example:—

I will go	means	{ I promise to go or I am determined to go.
You shall go	“	
He shall go	“	that the speaker puts upon him the necessity of going.

In questions in the first person *shall* is used, whatever answer is expected. In the second and third persons, if *shall* or *will* is used in the question, *shall* or *will* is expected in the answer. Note the illustrations:—

Shall you go?	Answer expected,—	<i>I shall go (I shall not go).</i>
Will you go?	“ “	<i>I will go (I will not go).</i>
Shall he go?	“ “	<i>He shall go (He shall not go).</i>
Will he go?	“ “	<i>He will go (He will not go).</i>

Exercise 200

Show the difference in meaning caused by using *shall* or *will* in each sentence:—

1. The orator will (shall) address us.
2. I shall (will) start on the early train.

3. I will (shall) fall.
4. No one shall (will) help me.
5. We will (shall) meet you at the train.
6. The train will (shall) arrive at ten o'clock.
7. Will (shall) you meet him?
8. You shall (will) meet him.
9. George shall (will) go with me.
10. The concert will (shall) begin promptly at eight o'clock.
11. Where shall (will) we find the entrance to the building?
12. Shall (will) we have dinner now?
13. Shall (will) I wear my thick coat?
14. You will (shall) wear what you think best.
15. Will (shall) you lend me a dollar for a few hours?
16. I will (shall) pay it back this evening.
17. We shall (will) be in New York three weeks.
18. Mary shall (will) stay at home.
19. The celebration will (shall) be general throughout the country.
20. Shall (will) we call a carriage?

Exercise 201

Fill the blanks with *shall* or *will*, according to the sense. Where either *shall* or *will* can be used, explain the difference in meaning:—

1. ——— you come in?
2. Father ——— return in a moment.
3. He ——— be glad to see you.
4. We ——— not stay in the room after he returns.
5. You ——— not disturb us.
6. I ——— ask Uncle's advice.

7. Time —— show who is right.
8. He —— pay the bill next week.
9. No one —— look for you in London.
10. How —— your brother like to have you there?
11. You —— arrive too late to meet him.
12. We —— start to-morrow.
13. —— we find a carriage at the station?
14. When —— the train start?
15. When —— we arrive at Washington?
16. —— Congress be in session?
17. We —— enjoy seeing the government buildings.
18. —— you visit us while we are there?
19. If you —— come we —— meet you at the train.
20. We —— not remain there more than three months.

Exercise 202

Select the verbs. In what tense is each?

This letter will help you to follow a part of my movements. I arrived in New York last Tuesday and began at once to see what I could. On Wednesday I drove through the principal streets and visited some of the most important buildings. On Thursday I saw a great procession, which filled the thoroughfares and made traffic difficult for hours. But I succeeded in escaping a part of the crowd. I shall not be able to describe half the interesting sights I have seen, but I will write a long letter in a day or two.

I shall take the early train on Monday for Chicago. There I shall remain four days. The weather will not be too warm in October, and I shall be very comfortable. There will be

some good music, and I shall hear as much as I can. You will receive a letter from me every few days.

CHAPTER LXXI

THE COMPLETE TENSES

It is often sufficient to express somewhat indefinitely the time of an action. But sometimes we feel the need of being more exact.

Compare the following sentences:—

1. They row the boat.
2. They rowed the boat.
3. They will row the boat.
4. They have rowed the boat.
5. They had rowed the boat.
6. They will have rowed the boat.

In the first three sentences the time of the rowing is somewhat indefinitely indicated. In the next three sentences the additional fact that the rowing is finished or *complete* is indicated. They have rowed the boat, but they are not rowing it now. The action is *complete* at the *present* time. We therefore say that *have rowed* is in the **Present Perfect Tense**.

The Present Perfect Tense indicates action completed at the present time.

“They had rowed the boat” suggests that the completed act of rowing was finished, but at some past time. If we say, for example, “They had rowed the boat across the river before we saw them,” the verb *had rowed* would indicate that the rowing was finished before the past action expressed by the verb *saw*. We therefore say that *had rowed* is in the **Past Perfect Tense**.

The Past Perfect Tense indicates action completed at some past time.

We may also refer to action that will be completed at some future time. In this case we may use the **Future Perfect Tense**, as in the sixth sentence.

The Future Perfect Tense indicates action that will be completed at some future time.

The Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, and the Future Perfect are called Complete Tenses because they indicate completed action.

CHAPTER LXXII

THE FORMATION OF THE COMPLETE TENSES

Each of the complete tenses is a verb-phrase formed by uniting with the **past participle** of the principal verb some form of **have**. It is therefore necessary to know the various forms of *have* which must be united with the past participle.

Present Tense

SINGULAR

1. I have
2. You have (thou hast)
3. He has

PLURAL

1. We have
2. You have
3. They have

Past Tense

1. I had
2. You had (thou hadst)
3. He had

1. We had
2. You had
3. They had

¹ Often called the Pluperfect Tense.

Future Tense

SINGULAR

1. I shall have
2. You will have (thou wilt have)
3. He will have

PLURAL

1. We shall have
2. You will have
3. They will have

The Present Perfect Tense is formed by uniting the past participle of the principal verb with the present tense of have; as, *have heard, have seen.*

The Past Perfect Tense is formed by uniting the past participle of the principal verb with the past tense of have; as, *had heard, had seen.*

The Future Perfect Tense is formed by uniting the past participle of the principal verb with the future tense of have; as, *shall or will have heard, shall or will have seen.*

The Future Perfect is less frequently used than any other tense.

Exercise 203

Write the present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect of the following verbs, using each form with the pronoun *he* as the subject:—

Arise, begin, bind, bleed, break, bring, buy, drive, find, forget, go, grow, hit, know, lose, put, ride, rise, sell, chase.

Exercise 204

Fill each blank with the three complete tense-forms of the verb suggested for the sentence.

1. *catch* The boys ——— a large string of fish.
2. *mow* The men ——— the hay in the meadow.

3. *see* We —— ten blackbirds in the cornfield.
4. *saw* Our farm-hands —— a cord of wood for us.
5. *buy* My father —— three new horses.
6. *blow* The wind ——
7. *bite* That dog —— several persons to-day.
8. *sing* The pupils —— five songs.
9. *shake* This wind —— all the apples off the trees.
10. *do* He —— a great deal of harm.
11. *ride* I —— ten miles.
12. *stand* The captain —— on the bridge all day.
13. *teach* They —— him arithmetic.
14. *write* He —— six letters.
15. *speak* Hamilton —— an hour every evening.
16. *fall* Some workmen —— from a scaffold.
17. *grow* The wheat —— several inches in two weeks.
18. *rise* The river —— to the top of the pier.
19. *choose* General Lawton —— only the strongest men.
20. *sell* The thief —— the diamonds.
21. *break* Our servants —— all the best china.

Exercise 205, for Review

What is the tense of every italicized verb in the following paragraph:—

The storm yesterday afternoon *was* very severe. For several days the weather *had been* unbearably hot, but the sky *had remained* cloudless so long that we hardly *expected* even a light shower. Shortly before three o'clock the air *was* unusually still. A few minutes later a furious wind *was blowing*. Greenish yellow clouds *hid* the sun. Dust and flying boards and bricks *filled* the air. Hailstones *smashed* heavy plate-glass windows.

I *have seen* several of the hailstones that weighed two or three ounces each. I *shall not be* able to estimate closely the damage to the crops, but I *will try* to learn something to-morrow. The corn crop *will be* very small in this region. Wheat *suffered* a good deal but *will probably recover* somewhat. Oats *will bring* high prices. I *shall drive* about the neighboring counties in the course of a few days and *will report* what I *can learn*. *Will you be good enough* to let me know what most *interests* you?

CHAPTER LXXIII

A REVIEW

Write four sentences to illustrate the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb.

Write five sentences, each containing a verb in the active voice. Rewrite them, and change the verb in each to the passive form. Explain the changes.

Define tense. Write five sentences to illustrate each of the following: The present tense, the past tense, the future tense.

What determines the person and number of the verb?

Why is the infinitive so named? In what respects is it used like a verb and in what respects like a noun?

Why is the participle so named? In what respects is it used like a verb and in what respect like an adjective?

What is a weak verb? A strong verb? Write the principal parts of ten weak verbs; of ten strong verbs.

What are the principal parts of a verb, and why are they so called?

Explain the use of *shall* and *will* in expressing simple future time. Write six declarative sentences, each containing *shall* in the first person. Substitute *will* for *shall*, and notice the change in the meaning. In questions, which of these auxiliaries should be used in the first person? Which in the second and third persons?

What is the difference in meaning between the present and the present perfect tense? Between the past and the past perfect? Between the future and the future perfect? Why are the complete tenses so named? Use each of these tenses in three sentences.

CHAPTER LXXIV

DIFFICULT VERB-FORMS

Several verbs present special difficulties from the fact that one verb-form is often confused with another. You should carefully learn the principal parts of the verbs commonly misused. In this chapter a number of these verbs are considered.

Lie AND *Lay*

Do not confuse the forms *lie* (to lie down) with *lay* (to place).

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
lie	lay	lain
lay	laid	laid

Remember that *lie* (to lie down) is an intransitive verb, and can therefore have no object, but that *lay* (to place) requires an object to complete its meaning.

Exercise 206

In the following sentences supply the correct form for *lie* or *lay*, and give your reasons:—

1. He used to —— for hours on the grass.
2. When I entered the room the books —— on the floor.
3. The snow —— deep in the woods.
4. The carpenter —— his tools on the bench.
5. You must not —— so late in the morning.
6. The glossy black cat —— quietly before the fire.
7. Silently the clergyman —— his hands on the young man's head.
8. The hunter —— on the ground, wrapped in his blanket.
9. When he arose he folded the blanket and —— it beside his saddle.
10. The clerk stopped writing and —— down his pen.
11. Then he yawned and —— down on the couch.
12. Bits of paper —— scattered about the floor.

Sit AND Set

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
sit	sat	sat
set	set	set

Sit is an intransitive verb. *Set* is a transitive verb.

NOTE.—We use the verb set intransitively when we refer to the setting sun and say, "The sun sets" or "The sun is setting."

Exercise 207

In the following sentences supply the correct form of *sit* or *set*, and give your reasons:—

1. A gray-haired old man —— in the corner.
2. His daughter —— the tea-kettle on the stove.
3. Then for a few minutes she —— beside her father.
4. He —— his worn hat upon his head.
5. At noon they —— down to a plain dinner.
6. The boys —— scattered about the large hall.
7. The manager told the boys to —— on the front bench.
8. Five of them, however, —— beside the open windows.
9. Do not —— on the wet grass.
10. Please —— the plants in even rows.
11. I wish that the agent would —— his wet umbrella in the rack.
12. Will you —— down?
13. We all —— down.

Seen AND Saw

PRESENT

see

PAST

saw

PAST PARTICIPLE

seen

Seen should not be used for *saw* in the past tense. *Seen* can never be used except as a past participle, either alone in a participial phrase or in combination with some form of *have* or *be*.

Exercise 208

Select the correct word, *saw* or *seen*, for the blanks:—

1. I —— the train leave the station.
2. We —— some great glaciers in the Canadian Rockies.
3. Have you —— the geysers in Yellowstone Park?
4. My brother —— them last summer.
5. I —— the sun rise this morning.
6. You should have —— his face.
7. If you had only —— Paris!
8. We —— it last summer.
9. Some people —— more than they should.

Ate AND *Eaten*

PRESENT

PAST

PAST PARTICIPLE

eat

ate

eaten

Be careful to use *ate* as the past tense and *eaten* as the past participle of the verb *eat*.

Eat (pronounced *et*) for *ate* and *eaten* is common, but is not used by careful writers and speakers.

Exercise 209

Select the correct word, *ate* or *eaten*, for the blanks:—

1. The trapper —— his dinner in silence.
2. When he had ——, he mounted his pony and rode away.
3. We —— our dinner on the train.
4. We should like to have —— with you.
5. The scanty meal was soon ——.
6. The children have —— all the fruit.
7. Four beggars —— on a bench in the corner.

8. We —— strange food in China.

9. One would think the drivers might have —— their dinner by this time.

Took AND Taken

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
take	took	taken

Exercise 210

Write five sentences in which you use *took* correctly as the past tense; five in which you use *taken* as the past participle.

Did AND Done

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
do	did	done

Exercise 211

Write five sentences in which you use *did*, and five in which you use *done*.

Various other verbs call for a word of caution. Do not confuse *let* and *leave*; *flowed* and *flown*; *lead* and *led*; *rode* and *ridden*; *drank* and *drunk*; *came* and *come*; *shook* and *shaken*; *spoke* and *spoken*; *stole* and *stolen*; *swam* and *swum*.

CHAPTER LXXV

MOOD

Note the various ways in which the verbs are used in the following sentences:—

1. The tourist *was* in Yellowstone Park.

Here the verb *was* asserts a fact.

2. *Was* the tourist in Yellowstone Park?

Here the verb *was* asks a question.

3. If the tourist *were* in Yellowstone Park he could see the geysers.

The verb in this case does not assert a fact but a **condition contrary to fact**. The tourist is *not* in Yellowstone Park, and therefore he *cannot* see the geysers.

4. Oh! that Lincoln *were* here to-day!

But Lincoln is *not* here, and the verb makes it clear that he is not. *Were* expresses in this case not a fact, but a mere **wish**.

5. *Go* to Yellowstone Park.

The verb *go* expresses a command.

Thus we see that in making an assertion the verb does not always make it in the same way. As you see in the examples, the thought may be presented (1) as a fact; (2) as a question; (3) as something which is not a fact, but is merely thought of; (4) as a wish; and (5) as a command.

The mode or manner in which the verb makes an assertion or presents a thought is called Mood.

In English there are three Moods: the Indicative, the Imperative, and the Subjunctive.

The older grammarians added a fourth mood, the Potential, but the term Potential Mood is not used by the best modern gram-

marians. Later (p. 233), we shall discuss potential verb-phrases, all of which may be regarded as either indicative verb-phrases or subjunctive verb-phrases.

NOTE.—*It is obviously out of place to discuss in a book of this character the subtleties involved in determining the mood of some of the more difficult verb-phrases.*

CHAPTER LXXVI

THE INDICATIVE AND THE IMPERATIVE MOODS

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

The Indicative Mood is used to assert a fact or to ask a question.

Exercise 212

Select the verbs used to assert facts. In what mood, tense, person, and number is each?

1. The driver stopped at the corner of the street.
2. All the crowd turned to look at him.
3. "That is a tired-looking horse," said one.
4. "He has come a long distance," remarked another.
5. "A policeman will be here soon," added a third.
6. Then one man, bolder than the rest, called out, "You are stopping at the wrong place."
7. "Your horse needs a rest."
8. "Yes," replied the driver, "we have hardly rested for two days."
9. "The country in my district has suffered from drought."
10. "The streams and wells are dry."

11. "No one has ever known such a summer in our region."
12. "We expect every crop to be a failure."
13. "Many of the farmers are returning to the East."
14. At this recital of troubles every one felt that he had misjudged the dusty driver.

Exercise 213

Select the verbs used to ask questions. In what tense is each ?

"Where have you been, little man?" asked the kindly woman at the door. "Are you lost? Have you had any dinner?" The boy shook his head. "Come in, then," said she. "Where do you live? In the country?" "Yes." "How old are you?" "Ten years old." "Did you carry that heavy bundle yourself? Have you any friends in New York? What do you expect to do there? Can you read? Have you been five years at school, did you say? Should you like to stay here?" The boy nodded. "What started you on the way to the city? You wanted work? What sort of work can a little mite like you do?"

Exercise 214

Use each verb in a question :—

Wish, surprise, admire, forget, expect, enjoy, excuse, thank, forgive, command, approve, hear, spend, dare, shoot, tell, send, leave, give, speak, whisper, conceal, mention, hide, catch, follow.

The Indicative Mood has *six tenses*, the Present, the Past, the Future, the Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, and the Future Perfect.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

It is frequently necessary to make a request or to express a command. You may, for example, order or command your dog, as follows: "*Come* here, Rover. *Jump* over the fence. *Chase* the cow out of the yard. *Be* quick about it. Now *lie* down."

In each of these cases a verb is used to express a command. No subject is expressed, but the subject *you* is implied. We may therefore say that the subject *you* is *understood*. Sometimes, however, in colloquial language, *you* is expressed when the speaker wishes to be especially emphatic; as, "*You* do as you are told. *You* go at once. *You* keep quiet, perfectly quiet."

The Imperative Mood is used to express a command or make a request.

Direct commands are of course addressed to some one, and hence the verb is in the second person. In bidding others do something we often include ourselves; as, for example, "Let us go now," in which *let* is imperative, *us* is the direct object, and *go* is an infinitive depending upon *let*. The Imperative Mood is always in the present tense.

Requests or entreaties are also frequently expressed by the indicative in the form of a question. For example:—

Will you kindly hand me that book?

Will you help me raise this window?

In cases where there is no doubt that an order will be obeyed the command is sometimes expressed by the future indicative in the form of an assertion:—

You will take five pages for your next lesson.

Mr. Simmons, you will detail ten men and bring a supply of water for the camp.

Exercise 215

Select the verbs used to express a command or make a request:—

A great crowd was at the golf grounds yesterday, and I was interested to note the variety of requests and commands that I overheard. “Run for that ball. Throw it here. Don’t stand in my way. Make more room in front. Bring me a glass of water. Show me your list of players a moment. Sit down! Get me another golf-ball. See that play. Let me try. Keep very quiet. Do not wait for me. Go to that end of the field. Stay there till five o’clock. Grasp the club with both hands. Don’t hold it too stiffly. Now raise it over your shoulder. Now make a stroke!”

Exercise 216

Name the moods and tenses of the verbs:—

You will be interested to know that we shall move into the new house next week. I have been packing books and china all this morning. The old house has been our home for ten years. It had grown rather shabby before we bought it, and required constant attention. If we had known more we should have built at once. The new house has fifteen rooms and commands a magnificent view. We expect you to spend at least a week with us in October.

Exercise 217

Using the following verbs, construct sentences expressing commands or requests:—

Give, tell, come, ask, go, call, write, break, take, like, listen, keep, begin, hurry, try, obey, speak, watch, drive, hide, wait, fill, see.

CHAPTER LXXVII

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The earlier English writers used the Subjunctive Mood far more freely than is the case to-day. At present the best writers and speakers rarely use distinctive forms for the subjunctive of any other verb than *be* in the present and past tenses.

Compare these two tenses of *be* in the indicative and the subjunctive moods:—

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR

1. I am
2. You are (thou art)
3. He is

PLURAL

1. We are
2. You are
3. They are

Past Tense

1. I was
2. You were (thou wast)
(thou wert)
3. He was

1. We were
2. You were
3. They were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR

1. If I be
2. If you be (if thou be)
3. If he be

PLURAL

1. If we be
2. If you be
3. If they be

Past Tense

1. If I were
2. If you were (if thou wert)
3. If he were

1. If we were
2. If you were
3. If they were

In all verbs except *be* the subjunctive forms in all the tenses are *exactly like those of the indicative except in the third person singular of the present tense*,¹ as in the following example:—

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR

1. I give
2. You give (thou givest)
3. He gives

PLURAL

1. We give
2. You give
3. They give

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

1. If I give
2. If you give (if thou give)
3. If he give

1. If we give
2. If you give
3. If they give

The subjunctive mood in dependent clauses is most frequently introduced by the subordinate conjunctions, *if, as if, though, although, unless, lest*, and so on.

¹ This statement of course takes no account of the thou-forms.

In the forms presented above, *if* is used, not because it is a part of the verb, but because it is oftener used with the subjunctive than any other conjunction.

THE USE AND MEANING OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Turning from the form of the subjunctive to its use and meaning, let us examine the third and fourth examples in Chapter LXXV. In neither of these sentences does the verb express a fact. In the third sentence *were* expresses a condition that **does not exist except as it is conceived by the mind**. "The tourist" is not in Yellowstone Park, but if he were there, he could see the geysers. In the fourth sentence *were* expresses the wish that something might be true. But we know that it is not true, that it is **only thought of**.

In these two examples we find the key to the use of the subjunctive mood. It makes assertions not about facts, but about things that are **merely thought of**—that are doubtful, uncertain, or even contrary to fact. Hence—

The Subjunctive Mood is used to assert something doubtful, uncertain, or contrary to reality.

We often express doubt or possibility by using the indicative with words that modify the assertion. But in this case the doubt or possibility is expressed by the modifier and not by the verb. For example:—

Possibly he is coming.

It is possible that he is coming.

Perhaps he is coming.

The subjunctive is used in old phrases such as *had rather*, *had better* and some others. Objection is sometimes made to these forms on the ground that they cannot be easily parsed. But these expressions have been employed for hundreds of years by the best speakers and writers, and may be used without hesitation.

The Subjunctive Mood is often used to express purpose, as in the following example:—

“Carlton worked faithfully, that he might win the prize.” *Might win*, expressing Carlton’s purpose, is in the Subjunctive Mood.

THE CONDITION AND THE CONCLUSION

Every sentence that contains a dependent conditional clause introduced by the subordinate conjunction *if* is of course complex and contains also a main clause. The conditional clause is called the **condition**, and the main clause the **conclusion**. In the example, “If the day were fair I could go to the picnic,” which is the dependent clause, or **condition**? Which is the main clause, or **conclusion**? The verb *could go*, quite as much as the verb *were*, asserts something contrary to reality.

In *could go* we have an instance of a subjunctive verb-phrase. In modern usage such verb-phrases are much more common than the inflectional subjunctive forms.

The dependent clause that we call the condition is always an adverbial clause.

Exercise 218

Does the italicized verb in each sentence express a wish or a condition contrary to reality?

1. If I *had* more money I would help you.
2. If you *were* a king, what would you do first?
3. *Were* you suddenly to become rich, what would you do first?
4. If he *had written*, we might have met him at the station.
5. *May* you *be* happy in your new home.
6. The Lord *keep* thee in all thy ways.
7. If he *had been* able to swim, he could have saved himself.
8. If we *had only known* what was coming, we could have prepared ourselves.
9. *Were* I differently *situated*, I might hope to accomplish something.
10. *May* you *be spared* what we have suffered.
11. Thy kingdom *come*, thy will *be done*.
12. *May* we *be led* in a plain path.
13. Suppose you *were* to go to New York, what would you do there?
14. Frank would like to go with you, if there *were* more room.
15. *Had* Napoleon *started* an hour earlier, he might have won the battle.
16. O that I *had* the wings of a dove!
17. O that he *knew* what we know!

DOUBT OR UNCERTAINTY

In many cases something doubtful or uncertain is expressed both by the verb in the condition and the verb in the conclusion, as the following examples show:—

If you *should join* our party, you *would receive* a welcome.

If it *should rain* to-morrow, the ground *would be* too wet for the picnic.

Each italicized verb here asserts something uncertain or doubtful, and is therefore in the subjunctive mood. We are uncertain whether you will join our party or not, just as we are uncertain whether it will rain. The conclusion, which cannot be realized unless the condition is fulfilled, is also subjunctive.

If either the condition or the conclusion asserts something as a fact or assumed to be a fact, the verb is in the indicative mood; as, "If it is rainy to-morrow, we shall not go on our picnic. If he joins our company, he will receive a hearty welcome."

Exercise 219

In the following conditional sentences which is the dependent clause, or condition? Which is the main clause, or conclusion? Name the verbs, and tell why each is in the subjunctive mood:—

1. If Washington were living to-day, he would see strange sights.

2. If the captain had expected such a storm, he would have waited another day.

3. If it were worth while, we could have a special train.

4. Were that once admitted, every man would have to be a soldier.

5. He might be rich to-day, if he had cared for business.

6. If the concert had begun promptly, it would have been over at nine o'clock.

7. If the train had not been delayed, George would have arrived this morning.

8. Had we anticipated such a delay, we could have made some other plan.

9. The wheat crop would have been enormous, if the season had been warmer.

10. If we had had more rain, the roads would be pleasanter.

11. If men could fly, they could often save time.

12. If we had seen you, we should have waited for you.

TENSE IN THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

We have now to look at the use of tenses in the subjunctive:—

If the dinner *were* ready, we should eat.

If the dinner *had been* ready, we should have eaten.

Where the condition and the conclusion are contrary to reality, the past subjunctive is used to indicate present time, as in the first sentence, and the past perfect subjunctive to express past time, as in the second sentence. But it is important to note that the tenses of the subjunctive do not indicate time so definitely as the tenses of the indicative do, the subjunctive present often referring to future time. This, as already noted (p. 161), is sometimes true also of the indicative present.

Exercise 220

Name all the verbs in the following exercise, and explain those that are in the subjunctive mood. Tell whether the condition and the conclusion express something doubtful or something contrary to reality:—

1. If wishes were horses beggars might ride.
2. He walks as if he were lame (as he would walk if he were lame).
3. We hoped that we might find a satisfactory house.
4. Were he here now, no one would be afraid.
5. Had he been here, every one would have been satisfied.
6. If you were to see him now, what would you say?
7. If you were to fall into a river, could you swim out?
8. Had he fallen into the river, he would have drowned.
9. If I should tell you the news, you would hardly believe it.
10. Even if it be true, it will not harm him.
11. You would like the house if you were to see it.
12. Supposing your friend were to come, we could not meet him.

Exercise 221, for Review

Explain the moods of the verbs:—

“Children, come here a moment,” said Ethel. “I have something to show you. Try to keep quiet.” The children sat down on the grass. Each one looked up at the speaker. She held in her hand an ivory box mounted with silver. “Look at this ivory box with the carved lid. Will you tell me how you would open the box?” “We would if we could,” said three or four. “If you had ever seen one like it, you could tell easily enough. Well, watch me, and see what I do.”

All watched the box as it lay on the table. Then, after a wave of her hand over the box, the lid slowly opened. The surprise of the children knew no bounds. “There is some secret in the box,” said they. “What did you do, Ethel?” “Nothing at all. I will explain the secret,” said she. “If you were to

examine the bottom of the box you would find it full of wheels. These wheels wind up like a clock when you turn this knob. Every five minutes the cover opens.”

“ I couldn’t make any use of such a box if I had it,” said one of the girls. “ No,” said Ethel, “ it is nothing but an expensive toy. You shall see some other things that will interest you just as much, and that are far more useful.”

Exercise 222, for Review

Select the verbs in this exercise. In what tense is each, and why? What is the subject of each? Point out the objects of the transitive verbs:—

For several weeks a large number of workmen have been building a factory near my house. I often watch them from my window. When they began the work they had to clear the land of trees and bushes. Then they dug the cellar and laid the foundations. They brought the stone from a quarry near by. They found good sand in digging the cellar, and they made lime for mortar by burning limestone in an old kiln beside the quarry.

As I see them now they are raising heavy steel girders to support the floors. The masons have nearly finished the walls for the first story, and there are huge piles of brick and stone waiting for the carriers. The carpenters have laid a rough floor for the first story, and they will begin the second story next week.

The contractors have hastened the work as much as possible, for they expect a large sum of money if they present the entire factory ready for use at the end of the summer. The workmen will get some share of the extra profits, and they well deserve it.

CHAPTER LXXVIII

CONJUGATION OF THE ACTIVE VOICE

From time to time we have considered various forms of the verb that have appeared in the sentences we have studied. It now remains for us to put together in an orderly arrangement the verb-forms and verb-phrases used for the different moods, tenses, persons, and numbers. Such an arrangement of the parts of a verb we call **Conjugation**.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *Move* IN THE ACTIVE VOICE*Principal Parts*

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
move	moved	moved

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I move	1. We move
2. You move (thou movest)	2. You move
3. He moves	3. They move

Past Tense

1. I moved	1. We moved
2. You moved (thou movedst)	2. You moved
3. He moved	3. They moved

Future Tense

1. I shall move	1. We shall move
2. You will move (thou wilt move)	2. You will move
3. He will move	3. They will move

Present Perfect Tense

SINGULAR

1. I have moved
2. You have moved (thou hast moved)
3. He has moved

PLURAL

1. We have moved
2. You have moved
3. They have moved

Past Perfect Tense

1. We had moved
2. You had moved (thou hadst moved)
3. He had moved

1. We had moved
2. You had moved
3. They had moved

Future Perfect Tense

1. We shall have moved
2. You will have moved (thou wilt have moved)
3. He will have moved

1. We shall have moved
2. You will have moved
3. They will have moved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

1. If I move
2. If you move (if thou move)
3. If he move

1. If we move
2. If you move
3. If they move

Past Tense

1. If I moved
2. If you moved (if thou movedst)
3. If he moved

1. If we moved
2. If you moved
3. If they moved

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR

move (thou or you)

PLURAL

move (you)

INFINITIVE

PRESENT

(To) move

PERFECT

(To) have moved

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT

moving

PERFECT

having moved

NOTE.—For the sake of brevity we give the conjugation of the subjunctive in the present and past tenses only. The other tenses can be supplied without difficulty.

Exercise 223

Using the subject *he*, write—

1. All the tenses of the indicative mood of the verbs *love*, *hear*, and *see*.
2. The present and past subjunctive of the same verbs.

Exercise 224

Write—

1. The imperative present in both numbers of *take*, *know*, *say*, *remember*, *command*, *make*, *lay*.
2. The infinitive forms and participles of *save*, *have*, *hear*, *see*, *salute*, *bring*, *say*, *wish*, *buy*.

Exercise 225, for Review

Select the verbs in the following paragraphs. In what tense is each?

I have had no time to write before, for I have been very busy. I have seen your friend. He says he has lived in the

city ten years, but he prefers the country, and will soon sell his house and buy a small farm near the seashore.

He tells me that when he built his present house there was no other dwelling in his neighborhood. But three years ago a contractor bought all the land that was for sale, and cut it up into small building-lots. Since that time there has been confusion. Carts have filled the streets. Heaps of sand and piles of brick and lumber have covered the stretches of green turf that were the principal attraction of the place.

Within a year, the contractor has erected at least a hundred houses, and he will probably put up fifty more next year. "I shall be glad," remarked your friend, "to forget that I have ever had a house here. The place has changed so much that it no longer seems like home. It is hard for me to realize that by next May I shall have lived here exactly ten years."

Exercise 226

Give the tense, person, and number of the following verb-forms:—

We may hear, you have seen, he compelled, they saved, we are, you have, I met, he glared, they surrounded, they were, she kept, it led, he requires, they will come, has she spoken, you had heard, he will have gone, he believes, we have driven, they had looked, it has arrived, we worship, they will have found, you have welcomed, she gives.

Exercise 227

Write the infinitives and participles of the following verbs:—

Think, choose, buy, cost, lend, have, swallow, jump, hold, keep, die, fly, use, take, vote, settle, decide, glean, sift, mark, fling, throw, flow, flee, blow, sink.

Exercise 228, for Review

1. In what mood, tense, person, and number are the verbs in Exercise 92 (p. 76)?

2. In what mood and tense are the verbs in Exercise 93 (p. 77)?

Exercise 229, for Review

Explain the mood and tense of each verb in the following paragraphs. With what subject is each used?

Early one morning last week I heard two dogs barking furiously under my window. I looked out and saw a pair of robins quietly building a new nest in an apple-tree. They gathered bits of straw and twigs and string, and then wove the whole firmly together. The sight was so interesting that I called George to come and watch them. He had never seen anything like it and exclaimed, "See them pick that string out of the grass. Look, look there, the big bird has found something else. Stop that barking," said he to the dogs, "you will frighten the birds. Do you think, mother, that if I were to go nearer the tree the birds would be frightened?" I told him to wait a few minutes, and added, "If the mother bird were to see you she might be as much afraid of you as of the dogs."

I was curious myself to know what the robins would do. After a little I said, "Come, George, we will try to make friends with the birds." We went out quietly and stood perfectly still near the tree. At first the robins flew about as if they were frightened. Then when they saw that we made no movement, they came nearer. Presently they picked up twigs at my feet and hopped about as if they had always known us.

CHAPTER LXXIX

THE PASSIVE VOICE

You have already learned that a transitive verb is in the **Active Voice** if the subject is the actor; and that a transitive verb is in the **Passive Voice** if the subject is the **receiver** of the **action**. It now remains to be seen how the **form** of the verb is altered when the verb is changed from the active to the passive voice.

ACTIVE VOICE

PASSIVE VOICE

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The boy <i>holds</i> the child. | The child <i>is held</i> by the boy. |
| 2. The boy <i>held</i> the child. | The child <i>was held</i> by the boy. |
| 3. The boy <i>will hold</i> the child. | The child <i>will be held</i> by the boy. |
| 4. The boy <i>has held</i> the child. | The child <i>has been held</i> by the boy. |
| 5. The boy <i>had held</i> the child. | The child <i>had been held</i> by the boy. |
| 6. The boy <i>will have held</i> the child. | The child <i>will have been held</i> by the boy. |

It is evident, on comparing the sentences in the first column with those in the second column, that the **meaning** is the same whether the active or the passive voice of the verb is used. But note the changes in the **form** of the sentences, taking for illustration the first pair of examples.

The **subject** *boy* of the active verb *holds* becomes in the **passive** form the **object** of the preposition *by*.

The object *child* of the active verb *holds* becomes in the passive the subject of the verb *is held*.

The simple verb-form *holds* of the active becomes in the passive a verb-phrase consisting of the past participle of the verb *hold* and the present tense of the verb *be*.

In changing from the active to the passive voice, the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. Intransitive verbs, therefore, since they have no object, can have no passive voice.¹

On looking again at the examples you will find the past participle of the verb *hold* used in each of the six tenses of the indicative. United with this participle is some form of the verb *be*. We have, then, the rule:—

To make the Passive Voice of any transitive verb we unite some form of the verb *be* with the Past Participle of a transitive verb.

CONJUGATION OF BE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am	1. We are
2. You are (thou art)	2. You are
3. He is	3. They are

Past Tense

1. I was	1. We were
2. You were (thou wast or wert)	2. You were
3. He was	3. They were

¹ But see page 159.

Future Tense

SINGULAR

PLURAL

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I shall be | 1. We shall be |
| 2. You will be (thou wilt
be) | 2. You will be |
| 3. He will be | 3. They will be |

Present Perfect Tense

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I have been | 1. We have been |
| 2. You have been (thou
hast been) | 2. You have been |
| 3. He has been | 3. They have been |

Past Perfect Tense

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. I had been | 1. We had been |
| 2. You had been (thou
hadst been) | 2. You had been |
| 3. He had been | 3. They had been |

Future Perfect Tense

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been | 1. We shall have been |
| 2. You will have been (thou
wilt have been) | 2. You will have been |
| 3. He will have been | 3. They will have been |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------|
| 1. If I be | 1. If we be |
| 2. If you be (if thou be) | 2. If you be |
| 3. If he be | 3. If they be |

Past Tense

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I were | 1. If we were |
| 2. If you were (if thou wert) | 2. If you were |
| 3. If he were | 3. If they were |

INFINITIVE MOOD

PRESENT

(To) be

PERFECT

(To) have been

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT

Being

PAST

Been

PERFECT

Having been

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

Be (thou or you)

Be (you)

CHAPTER LXXX

CONJUGATION OF MOVE IN THE PASSIVE VOICE

We will now combine the various forms of the verb *be* with the past participle *moved* and conjugate *move* in the passive voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR

1. I am moved
2. You are moved (thou art moved)
3. He is moved

PLURAL

1. We are moved
2. You are moved
3. They are moved

Past Tense

1. I was moved
2. You were moved (thou wast or wert moved)
3. He was moved

1. We were moved
2. You were moved
3. They were moved

CONJUGATION OF MOVE IN THE PASSIVE 227

Future Tense

SINGULAR

1. I shall be moved
2. You will be moved (thou wilt be moved)
3. He will be moved

PLURAL

1. We shall be moved
2. You will be moved
3. They will be moved

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have been moved
2. You have been moved (thou hast been moved)
3. He has been moved

1. We have been moved
2. You have been moved
3. They have been moved

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had been moved
2. You had been moved (thou hadst been moved)
3. He had been moved

1. We had been moved
2. You had been moved
3. They had been moved

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been moved
2. You will have been moved (thou wilt have been moved)
3. He will have been moved

1. We shall have been moved
2. You will have been moved
3. He will have been moved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

1. If I be moved
2. If you be moved (if thou be moved)
3. If he be moved

1. If we be moved
2. If you be moved
3. If they be moved

Past Tense

SINGULAR

1. If I were moved
2. If you were moved (if thou wert moved)
3. If he were moved

PLURAL

1. If we were moved
2. If you were moved
3. If they were moved

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Be (thou, you) moved

Be (you) moved

INFINITIVES

(To) be moved

(To) have been moved

PARTICIPLES

Present

Being moved

Past

Moved

Perfect

Having been moved

Exercise 230

In what mood, tense, person, and number are the following passive verb-phrases?

He will be heard, they had been seen, you are heard, I shall be pleased, we have been brought, they will be chosen, you had been found, he will be found, he was found, you will have been found, they have been seen, he is seen, you will be heard, I was heard, they will have been heard, I am heard, he had been heard.

Exercise 231

Using *love* as the verb and *he* as the subject, write passive verb-phrases in the indicative mood for the following tenses:—

The future perfect, the present, the future, the past, the present perfect, the past perfect.

Exercise 232

Write all the participles and the infinitive forms of the following verbs:—

Build, drink, find, hit, lay, sow, spend, write.

Exercise 233

Write in all the tenses of the indicative the third person singular of the verbs in the preceding exercise. Use *he* as the subject of each verb.

Exercise 234

Select all the verbs in the passive voice. What is the tense of each?

I was called to the telephone early this morning. An important message was given me. A schooner had been stranded for several hours on the Michigan side of the lake. The cargo had been unskilfully loaded, and the vessel had been caught in a heavy gale. As soon as possible, assistance was sent. Two tugboats were ordered up from Chicago. Cables were fastened to the stern of the vessel, and it was moved a little distance. But it had been driven well up on the shore, and could not be hauled off in the face of the heavy waves.

About noon I was informed that the schooner was completely wrecked. The hull was injured by a hidden rock, the hatches were torn off by the force of the wind and the waves, the masts were broken, and the cargo of wheat was spoiled by the water. When this was announced, word was sent to the captains of the tugs, and the wrecking-party was recalled. Fortunately all the crew have been saved, but everything else has been lost.

Exercise 235, for Review

Write in parallel columns all the verbs of the paragraph in the present, past, and future tenses:—

The French country districts well repay a lover of quaint, old-fashioned things. The little towns sleep quietly and hardly know what busy life is, but they have a charm for any one who is not in a hurry. They abound in narrow, crooked streets. They possess rare treasures in the stained glass and the carvings of old churches. They boast hotels built hundreds of years ago. You find ruined castles where you least expect them. The parks contain huge trees. No country is perfect, but rural France certainly is almost perfect in its way.

CHAPTER LXXXI

AUXILIARY VERBS

Observe the following sentences:—

I see the tree.

I read the book.

I walk to school.

I study at home.

Here each of these verbs is simple and makes sense without reference to any other verb. We have, however, a small, but very important, group of verbs that are peculiar in that they are not commonly used alone but along with other verbs. If you say, "I can," "I will," "I must," "I should," we do not know fully what you mean. But when you say,

I can see the tree,
I will read the book,
I must walk to school,
I should study at home,

we get your complete thought. Verbs like *can*, *will*, *must*, *should* are called **Auxiliary** (that is, *helping*) **Verbs**. They unite with other verbs to make verb-phrases. We have, then, the definition:—

Auxiliary verbs are those by the help of which other verbs form various moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.

Some of the auxiliary verbs, such as *am*, *was*, *have*, *do*, may be used independently. For example:—

He *has* everything there *is*.

You *have* the book.

Who *did* the work?

The common auxiliaries are *be* (*am*, *was*), *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *do*, *did*, *have*, *had*.

All the auxiliaries except *be* (*am*, *was*), *have*, *had*, unite with the *infinitive*¹ of other verbs to form verb-phrases. In such cases the infinitive sign *to* is omitted.

Be (*am*, *was*), *have*, *had*, unite with the *participles* of other verbs to form verb-phrases.

Verbs employ auxiliaries very freely. In fact, there are at most in everyday use only *four* simple verb-forms in weak verbs, and *five* in strong verbs. For example, the weak verb *move* has only the following

¹ See page 177.

simple forms: *move, moves, moving, moved*. The strong verb *see* has the five following: *see, sees, seeing, saw, seen*. Some strong verbs have the past tense and the past participle alike. Such verbs have only four simple verb-forms. For example, *sit, sits, sitting, sat*. Some weak verbs have the present and past tenses and the past participle alike, and only three forms. For example, *cut, cuts, cutting*.

In this enumeration we take no account of the verb-forms used in the solemn style.

Exercise 236

Which of the italicized words are auxiliary verbs? In every case give reasons for your answers.

1. *Do* not *waste* time when you study.
2. One *may* often *seem* busy when accomplishing nothing.
3. *Can* you *study* in a noisy room?
4. I *have succeeded* sometimes.
5. For myself I *should prefer* a room some distance from the street.
6. We *will try* to accommodate you.
7. *Will* you *look* at this one?
8. I *shall be* glad to see it.
9. *Will* you *pay* in advance?
10. I *will leave* the matter entirely to you.
11. The painters *have* not *finished* the back rooms.
12. What *have* they *done* all the week?
13. Where *does* the superintendent *live*?
14. You *might find* him at his office.
15. *Have* you *seen* him this morning?

16. He *must have gone* out.
17. Yes, he *has left* a notice on his door.
18. He *may not return* to-day.
19. We *should have been* earlier.
20. We *did not know* that he *would be* away.
21. We *should be* willing to wait if we *could be* sure he *would come* back.
22. We *might leave* word where we *shall be* this afternoon.
23. Do you *think we may hope* to see him this evening?
24. Yes, you *may safely rely* upon seeing him then.

CHAPTER LXXXII

POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES

We have commented upon auxiliaries in general. We now consider a very important group of verb-phrases formed by the help of auxiliaries.

Among the auxiliaries of very frequent use in modern English, as our examples have shown, are *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*. These, united with the infinitive without *to*, form verb-phrases that are by earlier grammarians classed together as a distinct mood called the Potential¹ Mood. More properly, however, these verb-phrases may be regarded as forms either of the indicative or the subjunctive mood, according to the thought they convey. If they assert a fact or ask a question, they are in the indicative mood. But if they assert what is conceived as doubtful, improbable, or

¹ Potential means "having power."

contrary to fact, they are in the subjunctive mood, and are called subjunctive verb-phrases. They are now used, except in the case of the verb *be*, far more than the simple subjunctive verb-forms.

Note these principal parts and conjugations:—

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
may	might	_____
can	could	_____
will	would	_____
shall	should	_____

In each case the present and past participles of these verbs are lacking.

CONJUGATION OF *May*

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I may	1. We may
2. You may (thou mayst)	2. You may
3. He may	3. They may

Past Tense

1. I might	1. We might
2. You might (thou mightest or mightst)	2. You might
3. He might	3. They might

Present Perfect Tense

1. I may have	1. We may have
2. You may have (thou mayst have)	2. You may have
3. He may have	3. They may have

Past Perfect Tense

SINGULAR

1. I might have
2. You might have (thou might-
est or mightst have)
3. He might have

PLURAL

1. We might have
2. You might have
3. They might have

CONJUGATION OF *Can*

Present Tense

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------|
| 1. I can | 1. We can |
| 2. You can (thou canst) | 2. You can |
| 3. He can | 3. They can |

Past Tense

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------|
| 1. I could | 1. We could |
| 2. You could (thou couldst) | 2. You could |
| 3. He could | 3. They could |

Present Perfect Tense

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. I can have | 1. We can have |
| 2. You can have (thou canst have) | 2. You can have |
| 3. He can have | 3. They can have |

Past Perfect Tense

- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 1. I could have | 1. We could have |
| 2. You could have (thou couldst
have) | 2. You could have |
| 3. He could have | 3. They could have |

We have already discussed *will* and *shall* as auxiliaries employed to form the future of the indicative. *Would* and *should* are frequently used in a *future*

sense in subjunctive verb-phrases; as, "He would go to-morrow if he could."

May indicates permission or possibility. "You *may* write" means that you are permitted to write. "I *may* write" is the same as "It is possible that I shall write." *May* in the subjunctive is often used to refer to *future* time; as, "I will ask whether I *may* go with him."

Can indicates ability. "We *can* do much if we are hopeful" means "We are able to do much if we are hopeful." *May* and *can* are often confused. You are correct when you ask your teacher, "*May* I go home?" for you are asking permission to go. But if you say, "*Can* I go home?" you say in effect, "Am I *able* to go home?" and of course you do not mean that.

Exercise 237

Select the potential verb-phrases in the following sentences. In what tense is each?

1. You may have seen some of the great ocean steamers in New York.
2. Such a man may be generous, but one can hardly call him honest.
3. You cannot expect to learn a new language in three months.
4. Could you lend me ten dollars for a day or two?
5. We must be prepared for all sorts of weather.
6. I think that the conductor might have stopped the car.
7. On a quiet day a small boat might venture outside the breakwater.

8. The man that can do the work he likes best is to be envied.
9. The wind blew so hard that we could not row against it.
10. From where the officers sat they might have seen every movement of the enemy.
11. You may as well take an umbrella.
12. I wish you could have met my friend.
13. The landlady could not say that we were welcome.
14. The house may have been comfortable years ago.
15. You may be right.
16. He might as well risk a little money and enjoy life.
17. A pupil cannot afford to worry over his work.
18. We may perhaps suggest some improvements.
19. A man may easily fall in crossing an icy street.

Exercise 238

Fill out the blanks in each case with *may* or *can* and explain the meaning of the sentence.

1. I —— not read in the evening.
2. None but a strong man —— lift that great stone.
3. You ——, perhaps, catch the three o'clock train.
4. —— I be excused at half-past three?
5. —— we play ten minutes longer?
6. You —— tell what you learned so carefully this morning.
7. —— we go home by this path?
8. We —— do anything we are able to do.
9. We —— do anything we are permitted to do.
10. Many people would like to read but —— not.

11. You —— easily learn about the trains by looking at the time-table.

12. If you —— read interesting books you need not be lonely.

13. How —— one help making mistakes now and then?

14. We —— start at any time.

15. I —— say only what I have been told.

16. You —— drive home if you wish.

17. We —— call a peach an apple, but it —— not be an apple after all.

CHAPTER LXXXIII

PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES

Examine the verbs in italics:—

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The farmer <i>mows</i> his hay. | The farmer <i>is mowing</i> his hay. |
| 2. The farmer <i>mowed</i> his hay. | The farmer <i>was mowing</i> his hay. |
| 3. The farmer <i>will mow</i> his hay. | The farmer <i>will be mowing</i> his hay. |
| 4. The farmer <i>has mowed</i> his hay. | The farmer <i>has been mowing</i> his hay. |
| 5. The farmer <i>had mowed</i> his hay. | The farmer <i>had been mowing</i> his hay. |
| 6. The farmer <i>will have mowed</i> his hay. | The farmer <i>will have been mowing</i> his hay. |

When we say, "The farmer mows his hay," the verb *mows* is used to make a simple assertion about the

farmer. The same is true when we say, "The farmer *is mowing* his hay," but the verb asserts that the action is going on, or progressing, at the present time.¹ "Was mowing" asserts that the action was going on, or progressing, at some past time. Hence, *is mowing, was mowing, will be mowing, has been mowing, had been mowing, and will have been mowing* are called **Progressive Forms** of the verb, or **Progressive Verb-Phrases**. You will observe that each consists of the present participle *mowing* and some form of the verb *be*. Hence—

We make Progressive Verb-Phrases by uniting the present participle with some form of the verb be.

Exercise 239

Make progressive verb-phrases in all the tenses of the indicative mood.

Run, swim, sing, play, row, read, cut, wait.

Exercise 240

Write progressive verb-phrases in the present and past indicative, and use each of them with *they* as subject:—

Float, fly, skim, paddle, row, sail.

You must be careful not to confuse progressive verb-phrases in the active voice with passive verb-phrases. Compare the sentences standing opposite each other in the parallel columns:—

¹ In the present tense the progressive forms are far more commonly used than the simple forms.

PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES

1. The boy *is striking* the ox.
2. The fox *is chasing* the hen.
3. The soldier *is shooting* the gun.

PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES

- The boy *is struck*.
 The fox *is chased*.
 The soldier *is shot*.

Note that **progressive verb-phrases** in the active voice are made by uniting the **present active participle** with some form of the verb *be*; but that **passive verb-phrases** are made by uniting the **past participle** with some form of the verb *be*.

Progressive verb-phrases in the present and past tenses are formed in the passive voice by using *am being, is being, was being, etc.*, with the past participle; for example, "The fox $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{was} \end{array} \right\}$ being chased."

Progressive verb-phrases in the passive are often awkward, and should be sparingly used.

Exercise 241

Write in parallel columns the progressive verb-phrases and the passive verb-phrases for all the tenses of the indicative, and use each phrase with *they* as subject:—

Write, hear, see, love, call, grieve.

Exercise 242

Show which are progressive verb-phrases and which passive. What is the mood and tense of each?

1. The workmen have been building the house for a year.
2. The house has been built a year.
3. I am writing a letter.
4. The letter is written.

5. The letter will be written this morning.
6. Frank has been writing a letter.
7. Boys were tossing a ball from one to another.
8. A ball was being tossed from one boy to another.
9. Far in the distance every movement was noted.
10. Two men were noting every movement in the distance.
11. A boy was picking strawberries.
12. At length the strawberries were picked.
13. In the dining-room two servants were quietly laying the table.
14. The table had been laid in the dining-room.
15. That book has not been read.
16. We are reading history.
17. The expressman is bringing a parcel to our house.
18. A parcel was brought to the house an hour ago.
19. Already the street-lamps are being lighted.
20. A man was rapidly lighting the street-lamps.

CHAPTER LXXXIV

DO AND DID AS AUXILIARIES

A distinctive verb-phrase in common use is formed by uniting *do* or *did* with the infinitive without its sign *to*. This form of expression is called the **Emphatic Form**, because it is used to give emphasis to the assertion.

We often employ it when we wish to assert something that has been denied or doubted; as, "I *do* know what I'm talking about"; "I *did* hear what you said"; "I *do* know my lesson"; "I *did* read every page of the book."

should say, "He ought not to do it," for *ought* has no participles and therefore cannot be combined with the auxiliary *had*.

IMPERSONAL VERBS

When we say, "It blows," "It pours," "It snows," "It is stormy," "It is dark," we use *it* in a very indefinite sense, without referring to any person or thing. A verb used with indefinite *it* as a subject is called an **Impersonal Verb**.

EXPLETIVES

It is sometimes used to introduce sentences whose real subject follows the verb. When thus used *it* is called an **Expletive**.¹

The verb in this case is not impersonal as in the instances above, but the subject *it* merely anticipates the *real* subject.

There is at times used in the same way, and is then called an **Expletive**.

Examine the following sentences:—

WITH THE EXPLETIVE

WITHOUT THE EXPLETIVE

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. It seems good to see you. | To see you seems good. |
| 2. It is pleasant to know that you approve. | To know that you approve is pleasant. |
| 3. There were many people at the fair. | Many people were at the fair. |
| 4. There are millions of people in New York. | Millions of people are in New York. |

¹ An expletive is really a word used as a "filler." The term is derived from Latin words meaning to *fill up* or *fill out*.

What is the real subject of the verb in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? In the fourth?

You must be careful not to confuse *there* used as an expletive with *there* used as a simple adverb of place.

Compare the following sentences:—

THERE AS AN EXPLETIVE

THERE AS A SIMPLE ADVERB

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. <i>There</i> seemed to be two men on the mountain. | 4. Two men seemed to be <i>there</i> . |
| 2. <i>There</i> appeared to be a hundred people. | 5. A hundred people appeared to be <i>there</i> . |
| 3. <i>There</i> once reigned in England a good king named Alfred. | 6. A good king named Alfred once reigned <i>there</i> . |

Exercise 245

Wherever *it* or *there* is used as an expletive rewrite the sentence, omitting the expletive and underscoring the real subject:—

1. There has been a fog here all this week.
2. It is hard work to row in hot weather.
3. It seems easy to swim, until you try.
4. It is absurd to buy things merely because they are cheap.
5. There are ten thousand volumes in this library.
6. It was no plan of mine to cross on that thin ice.
7. It would have been possible to pay a part of his debts.
8. There was a large audience at the concert last evening.
9. It was his greatest ambition to go to college.
10. There had been a crowd of people watching the boat-race.

11. There is a good hotel not far from here.
12. It would be desirable to have the exact truth known.
13. But it is not pleasant to have to listen to gossip.
14. There are handsome rugs on the floor.
15. It is unnecessary to invite him to come again.
16. It was his rule to walk four miles every day.
17. There is a stranger at the door.
18. It seemed strangely familiar to hear the old songs once more.

CHAPTER LXXXVI

A REVIEW

Write the principal parts of *lie* (to lie down), *lay*, *sit*, *set*, *see*, *ate*, *took*, *do*. Put into a written sentence the past and the past perfect tense of each of these verbs.

Define indicative mood, imperative mood, and subjunctive mood. Write three sentences to illustrate the use of the indicative mood and three to illustrate the use of the imperative.

Conjugate the verb *be* in the indicative and subjunctive present and past.

How is the subjunctive mood used? Write three sentences to illustrate each of the following: The subjunctive used to express a wish and the subjunctive used to express a condition contrary to fact. Explain the difference between a main clause and a dependent clause. In the sentences that you write to illustrate the subjunctive used to express condition contrary to fact, which is the main and which the dependent clause?

Using *he* as the subject, write the third person singular of the verb *see* in all the tenses of the indicative mood in the active and the passive voice; that is, write a **Synopsis** of the verb.

Write all the imperative forms, the infinitives, and the participles of the same verb.

What are auxiliary verbs? Why are they so important in English? Explain the formation of the tenses of the passive voice. Name auxiliaries that you find in the conjugation of any verb in the active voice; in the passive voice.

What auxiliaries are used to form potential verb-phrases? Write twenty potential verb-phrases and use five of them in sentences. Write four sentences to illustrate the difference in meaning between *may* and *can*.

Using *he* as subject, write the third person singular of the verb *read* in the progressive form for all the tenses of the indicative active. What is the difference in *form* between passive verb-phrases and progressive verb-phrases in the active voice? Illustrate.

Write five sentences to illustrate each of the following uses of the auxiliary *do*: In emphatic forms, in negative sentences, and in interrogative sentences. Write three sentences, each containing *doesn't*, and three, each containing *don't*.

Define expletive, defective verb, and impersonal verb. Write five sentences introduced by the expletive *there*, and five introduced by the expletive *it*.

CHAPTER LXXXVII

THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

You have grown familiar with the idea that sentences consist almost entirely of three elements: The subject and its modifiers, the predicate and its modifiers, and complements and their modifiers.

In addition to these you have studied independent elements, such as interjections and the nominative independent by direct address. Independent elements are so called because *they have no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.*

An independent use of the noun hitherto undiscussed in this book may be seen by comparing the italicized parts of the following pairs of sentences:—

1. *The storm having subsided*, we started for our drive.

When the storm had subsided, we started for our drive.

2. *Wolfe having succeeded in scaling the rocky heights above Quebec*, the capture of the city was certain.

When Wolfe succeeded in scaling the rocky heights above Quebec, the capture of the city was certain.

3. *The assault failing*, the army beat a hasty retreat.

As the assault failed, the army beat a hasty retreat.

In the first example of the first pair we notice two distinctive things about the noun *storm*: it is used with the participle *having subsided* and it has no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

In the first example of the second pair the noun

Wolfe is used with the participle *having succeeded*, and is without grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

With what participle is *assault*, in the first example of the third pair, used?

A noun or pronoun modified by a participle (expressed or implied) and having no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence is in the Nominative Absolute.

By comparing the sentences in the pairs above, you will see clearly that though the noun used in the nominative absolute has no grammatical relation with the rest of the sentence, the **entire phrase** of which the noun forms a part is equivalent to an adverbial clause.

The nominative absolute should not be used to excess, but it occasionally serves to give variety of expression.

Exercise 246

Find all the nouns and pronouns used in the nominative absolute. With what participle is each used?

1. He went up the lonely path, his fear rising with every step.
2. The steamer having gone, the party had to wait three days.
3. A strong wind having risen in the night, the waves were very high.
4. This done, we need remain no longer.
5. The coach stopped suddenly, one of the traces having broken.
6. The weather being very dry, all the grass was brown.

7. In single file, their hands tied behind their backs, the prisoners were driven along the narrow path.

8. He stood silent before the king, his head bowed in submission.

9. These demands once granted, what may we not expect?

10. You sleep in peace, the tyrant being slain.

Exercise 247

Rewrite the sentences in Exercise 246, changing the nominative-absolute phrases to adverbial phrases or clauses.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII

THE OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

Some transitive verbs take two objects, the second of which is required to complete the meaning of the predicate.

Examine the italicized words in the following sentences:—

1. The Indians called the river *Niagara*.
2. The company chose Lincoln *captain*.
3. La Salle made Tonti his *lieutenant*.
4. All the world deemed Gladstone a *great statesman*.
5. The boys called the umpire *unfair*.

If we omit from each of the examples the word in italics, the sense is incomplete. To say, "The Indians called the river," "The company chose Lincoln," "La Salle made Tonti," "All the world deemed Gladstone," "The boys called the umpire," is to tell nothing definite.

We naturally expect a word to complete the meaning of the verb and to explain its object. What did the Indians call the river? *Niagara* tells us, and not only explains the noun *river*, which is the object of the transitive verb *called*, but completes the meaning of the verb. We therefore call it the **Objective Complement**. Show how *captain* explains the object *Lincoln* and completes the meaning of the verb. Why are *lieutenant* and *statesman* objective complements?

In the fifth sentence the adjective *unfair* also is called an objective complement.

We have, then, the rule:—

A word that explains the object of a transitive verb and completes the meaning of the verb is called an Objective Complement.

Verbs of appointing, calling, choosing, electing, making, naming, regarding, thinking, and some others of a similar meaning, may be followed by the objective complement.

Now note what change takes place in the construction of the objective complement when the verb becomes passive:—

The Indians called the river *Niagara*. (Active.)

The company chose Lincoln *captain*. (Active.)

The river was called *Niagara* by the Indians. (Passive.)

Lincoln was chosen *captain* by the company. (Passive.)

Reviewing here the copula and copulative verbs, you will see that in the passive form of the sentences the

nouns *Niagara* and *captain* are predicate nouns, for they complete the meaning of the verb and at the same time describe or explain the subject. How would you change the fifth sentence to the passive form? What name would you give to the adjective in the predicate?

Exercise 248

Select the objective complements. Show how each one explains an object of a transitive verb and completes the meaning of the verb. Point out the adjectives that are used as objective complements:—

1. They chose Rawson director of the new iron works.
2. They called him superintendent.
3. The company made Coleman foreman.
4. They deemed him the best manager who had ever been at the factory.
5. Some persons considered Randall a good man for the superintendent's place.
6. Others regarded him as better fitted for other work.
7. But everybody thought him trustworthy.
8. The directors will probably appoint him paymaster.

The objective complement is frequently preceded by *as*. In which of these sentences may it be used?

Exercise 249

Fill out the blanks with objective complements:—

1. The Indians thought Red Wing a great _____.
2. Early in the campaign they made him their _____.
3. The people of the United States elected Lincoln _____.
4. All the company agreed to appoint Singleton _____.

5. The foot-ball team made Harry Gordon —— this afternoon.
6. The President appointed Charles Graham ——.
7. We have called this book ——.
8. The parents named the boy ——.
9. The clergyman pronounced them ——.

Exercise 250

1. Change Examples 3, 4, and 5 at the beginning of the chapter to the passive form, and underscore the predicate nouns and predicate adjectives.
2. Do the same with all the sentences in Exercise 248.

Exercise 251

Select the predicate nouns and predicate adjectives, and explain each:—

1. The savages were deemed unworthy of notice.
2. New York was formerly called New Amsterdam.
3. Edward the Third's eldest son was also named Edward.
4. Washington was chosen commander of the little army.
5. Manton has been elected captain of the foot-ball team.
6. The President has appointed John Bryan postmaster.
7. Henry Orton has been made administrator of his brother's estate.
8. Red Wing was called the greatest warrior in his tribe.
9. Rachel was deemed unusually skilful with her needle.
10. Of all the contestants Linton was thought the most likely to win.
11. The old abandoned camp has been made a paradise.
12. Simmons has been appointed superintendent of the water-works.

CHAPTER LXXXIX

THE ADVERB

ADVERBS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO MEANING

Notice the difference in the meaning of the following sentences:—

1. The boys played.
2. The boys played *yesterday*.
3. The boys played *there*.
4. The boys played *well*.
5. The boys played very *little*.

The words in italics are adverbs because they modify the meaning of the verb *played*.

Since *yesterday* answers the question, *when?* it is called an **Adverb of Time**. Adverbs that answer the question, *when?* include *always, early, ever, often, seldom, soon, to-day, to-morrow*, and many others.

There answers the question *where?* and is called an **Adverb of Place**. Some other adverbs of place are *here, anywhere, somewhere, yonder*.

Well is an **Adverb of Manner** because it answers the question *how?* Some other adverbs of manner are *so, thus, badly, clearly, easily, smoothly, gracefully, slowly, rapidly, awkwardly, carelessly*.

Many adverbs of manner ending in *ly* are formed from adjectives.

Little is an **Adverb of Degree** because it answers the question *how much?* Some other adverbs of degree

are *very, much, almost, enough, too, so, somewhat, rather, uncommonly, quite, entirely.*

According to meaning, therefore, adverbs may be classified as adverbs of time, place, manner, and degree.

Some words have the same form both as adjectives and adverbs. For example, *fast, hard, little, long, loud, much, wide,* and so on.

ASSERTIVE ADVERBS

As you learned in Chapter XX, adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. But there are adverbs that modify the meaning, not of single parts of speech, but of the thought expressed in the entire clause or sentence. These are called **Assertive Adverbs**. *Indeed, perhaps, possibly, certainly, surely,* and some others may be used as Assertive Adverbs. For example, "This is, *indeed,* so clear that it needs no illustration."

Yes and *No* are sometimes called adverbs, but they are equivalent to an entire sentence, and may be called **Sentence-Adverbs**.¹ If, for instance, some one asks, "Do you like Longfellow's poetry?" you are likely, in giving an affirmative answer, to use the single word "Yes," which stands for the whole sentence, "I like Longfellow's poetry." The assertive adverbs are in many cases sentence-adverbs.

Exercise 252

From the following adjectives form adverbs of manner:—

Easy, constant, steady, industrious, pleasant, droll, comical, awkward, gaudy, courteous, elegant, beautiful, graceful,

¹ This term is borrowed from Sweet's *New English Grammar*.

dainty, happy, quiet, slow, quick, quaint, smart, playful, witty.

Exercise 253

Fill out the blanks with adverbs. What part of speech does each modify?

1. _____ this morning two robins fought _____ in the road.
2. There was nothing that Larry wanted _____ than this.
3. He _____ behaved himself _____.
4. The mother watched her daughter _____.
5. We understand him _____.
6. Show me _____ you do it.
7. He will _____ arrive on the noon train.
8. School opens _____ at nine o'clock.
9. The boat drifted _____ down the stream.
10. We _____ misjudge our best friends.
11. The sun shone _____.
12. This is the decision to which I have _____ come.
13. I have eaten _____.
14. Montgomery was _____ nearing the scene.
15. Winslow had been working _____ in the library.
16. He stopped _____.
17. Lucinda laughed _____ in reply.

Exercise 254

Select the adverbs. What word does each modify?

1. We rode directly toward the encampment, over the arid plains and barren hills.
2. Anxious to see the sport, I galloped forward.

3. Suddenly my bridle was seized, and I was ordered to dismount.

4. I was flung forcibly to the ground, and lay there stunned.

5. At length, I regained control of my limbs.

6. Then I moved noiselessly away from the village.

7. Now and then I could hear the low laughter of some girl in a neighboring lodge.

8. The long limbs of the pines waved slowly up and down.

9. The deep glen was completely shadowed.

10. As I descended still farther, the view changed rapidly.

11. A vast white canopy of smoke partially obscured the rays of the sun.

12. I could see the valley below, alive with Indians passing rapidly through it.

13. Slowly, hour after hour, that weary afternoon wore away.

Exercise 255

Use in sentences some of the following adverbs:—

Often, easily, almost, somewhere, possibly, perhaps, rather, carelessly, somewhat, certainly, again, yesterday, then, there.

PHRASAL ADVERBS

There are some phrases that are always used like adverbs, and are therefore called **Phrasal Adverbs**. These include the following:—

Again and again, at all, at best, at last, at least, at length, at once, by all means, by far, by and by, for good, in and out, in general, in short, in the main, in

vain, now and then, of course, one by one, out and out, through and through, and many others.

Exercise 256

Write ten sentences, using in each a phrasal adverb.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Some adverbs admit of comparison, like adjectives; as, *soon, sooner, soonest; clearly, more clearly, most clearly.*

Most adverbs of one syllable form the comparative and superlative degree by adding *er* and *est* to the positive; but adverbs of more than one syllable usually form their comparative and superlative degree by using *more* and *most* with the positive.

Some adverbs have an irregular comparison. They include the following:—

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
badly, ill	worse	worst
far	farther, further	farther, furthest
late	later	latest, last
little	less	least
much	more	most
well	better	best

Many adverbs are from their meaning incapable of comparison. For example, *once, yesterday, now, hereafter.*

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS

When adverbs are used to ask questions they are called **Interrogative Adverbs**. The italicized words in

the following sentences are sometimes used as interrogative adverbs:—

<i>When</i>	}	is he going?	<i>When</i>	}	is he coming?
<i>Where</i>			<i>Why</i>		
<i>Why</i>			<i>Whence</i>		
<i>Whither</i>			<i>How</i>		
<i>How</i>					

Exercise 257

Select the words used as interrogative adverbs. What does each modify?

1. Where have you seen this book before?
2. When did your letter come?
3. How has the sea bathing been this year?
4. Whence has this trouble come?
5. Why have you stayed away so long?
6. When are you going home?
7. How can you find the road in the dark?
8. Where do you make the first turn?
9. Why must you go to-night?
10. "Whither goes this messenger?" says the Duke in the play.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

In the sentence, "I do not know where he lives," the word *where* is used to connect the dependent clause with the rest of the sentence. If it did nothing but connect we should call it a conjunction. But it also modifies the verb *lives*, and thus has an adverbial use.

We therefore call it a **Conjunctive Adverb**. Some of the more common conjunctive adverbs are *when, where, how, why, since, and while*.

A conjunctive adverb may be expanded to a phrase. Thus, "Show me *how* you do it" becomes "Show me *in what way* you do it." Try to expand other conjunctive adverbs.

Exercise 258

Select the conjunctive adverbs. What clause does each connect with the rest of the sentence? What verb in the dependent clause does each modify?

1. When money is plentiful prices are high.
2. Maxon saw where the road made a sudden turn.
3. Do you understand why there is no game to-day?
4. A careful sailor knows when he must take in sail.
5. Where the cove was sheltered the water was still.
6. When Arthur stopped there was a long pause.
7. No one knows how we reached home.
8. The wind bloweth where it listeth, and thou hearest the sound thereof, but canst not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth.
9. Brooke showed Tom how he should hold the boat.
10. Do you remember where you left the tickets?
11. Tell me how he was hurt.
12. Every one knew why the game was stopped.
13. My rose-bushes have not done well since they were trimmed.
14. You should have been here when the band played.
15. Can any one tell whither our world is moving?

DOUBLE NEGATIVES

Remember that two negatives are equal to one affirmative. "I don't make no mistakes in spelling," really says the contrary of what the speaker intends. "He is not unacquainted with the rules of grammar," means "He is acquainted with the rules of grammar."

NOUNS USED AS ADVERBS

In Chapter XXIII you learned that nouns are sometimes used as adverbs. What tests were given for determining when nouns are so used?

Exercise 259

Find the nouns used as adverbs:—

1. Wait a minute, will you?
2. After breakfast walk a mile.
3. The engine ran three months without a break.
4. In some places the Atlantic Ocean is a mile deep.
5. Our train stopped only three minutes in Philadelphia.
6. The lion sprang several feet into the air.
7. You ought to have been here last night.
8. This hotel has been built ten years.
9. In some states the law requires that heavy wagons shall have tires four inches wide.
10. That stone wall is twelve feet high.

CHAPTER XC

THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE AND THE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE

In the chapter on the objective complement (p. 251) we found that verbs of making, calling, choosing, and the like take a **second objective word** to explain the meaning of the object, and this second objective word is called the objective complement. When these verbs are made passive the **objective complement** becomes a **predicate noun**, and an adjective used as an objective complement becomes a **predicate adjective**.

THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE

The predicate noun must always agree in case with the subject which it describes or explains. In other words, the predicate noun must always be in the nominative case because the subject is in the nominative case.

This rule is not so important when a *noun* is used after the copula, because in nouns the form of the nominative case is like that of the objective case; but when a *pronoun* follows the copula the rule will help you to use the correct form. To understand this better examine the following examples:—

CORRECT FORMS

It is I.
It is he.
It is she.
It is they.

INCORRECT FORMS

It is me.
It is him.
It is her.
It is them.

Since the predicate noun or pronoun must be in the same case with the subject, the nominative form of the pronoun must be used in each of the examples cited.

The nominative is used after the infinitive in such a sentence as, "It seemed to be *he*;" the objective is used in such a sentence as, "I thought it to be *him*."

The verb of course always agrees with its subject and not with the predicate nominative. Hence we must say, "The two *are* one."

NOTE.—"It is *me*," "It was *me*," may sometimes be heard in conversation from speakers otherwise careful, but such forms as "It was *him*," etc., are avoided by every one pretending to be educated at all.

Exercise 260

Referring to Chapter LXXXVIII, write six sentences each containing a noun used as an objective complement. Change each sentence to the passive form, and underscore the predicate nominatives.

Exercise 261

Point out and explain the predicate adjectives:—

1. Markham was considered most fit for the position.
2. He is deemed very skilful.
3. Kirkham was thought too young.
4. He has been kept very anxious for the last few days.
5. He will be left very poor if he gets nothing.
6. Girton was made uneasy by some unfounded reports.
7. He was even called dishonest.
8. He will doubtless be proved innocent.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS WITH COPULATIVE VERBS

With certain verbs, like *feel*, *look*, *smell*, *sound*, and *taste*, it is not always easy to know whether to use an adjective or an adverb. Study the following examples:—

1. Look at the matter thoughtfully before you go further.
2. Washington looked thoughtful.

The adverb *thoughtfully* is correctly used because it modifies the verb *look*. But in the second example *thoughtful* does not modify the verb. It does not show how Washington looked at anything, but describes the subject *Washington*. He was thoughtful or at least appeared to be. *Thoughtful* is therefore an adjective.

In other terms, if the modifying word modifies the verb it must be an adverb; but if it modifies the subject it must be an adjective.

We properly say, then, "The apple tastes sweet," for this means the same thing as "The apple is sweet to the taste," where the word *sweet* modifies *apple*.

As a general rule, whenever we may substitute some form of *be* for the copulative verb, the adjective and not the adverb should be used.

Exercise 262

Fill out the blanks with adjectives or adverbs, and in every case give reasons for your choice:—

1. Those clouds appear _____.
2. The stove looks _____.
3. I feel very _____ for your loss.

4. You seem more —— than I should be.
5. This lesson seems ——.
6. The weather this morning appears ——.
7. This lemon tastes ——.
8. The old trapper looked —— at the newcomer.
9. Most of the orange crop remains ——.
10. That milk looks ——.
11. Sea water tastes ——.
12. The soldier lay —— on the ground.
13. Gertrude always appears —— in company.
14. The new bell sounds ——.
15. I wish that dog would not look so —— at us.
16. On examination the beggar's story proved ——.
17. The wind is growing ——.
18. The poor girl was left ——.

Exercise 263

Point out the subjects, the copulas and copulative verbs, and the predicate noun and the predicate adjectives:—

1. The heat was intense.
2. The dogs lay panting on the ground,—too languid even to growl.
3. I was thirsty and knelt down by the little stream to drink.
4. That day was the first of August.
5. The next morning dawned chill, damp, and dark.
6. The camp soon became alive with the bustle of preparation.
7. The country in front looked wild and broken.

8. The woods were fresh and cool in the early morning.
9. The scene appeared grand and imposing.

CHAPTER XCI

WORDS USED AS VARIOUS PARTS OF SPEECH

In preceding pages you have often noted how the same word may be used as one part of speech in one sentence and as a different part of speech in another sentence. You may well test your knowledge of grammar by trying to put into sentences of your own the following words used as various parts of speech. Some of these words may be used as two parts of speech, some as three, and others as four:—

All, above, about, after, as, before, both, but, either, enough, except, fast, for, like, much, near, only, since, still, that, what, which, while, who, why, yet.

In this work you will find a good dictionary very helpful.

NOTE.—The extent to which this work should be carried may be left to the teacher.

CHAPTER XCII

PARSING

From the beginning of this book to the present chapter the one question that has been kept before you is this: How are words used in sentences? If a word is used as a name we call it a noun, if it is used to

make an assertion we call it a verb, and so on for the six remaining parts of speech. Now, when we classify a word as one of the parts of speech and show its relation to other words in the sentence we are said to *parse* it. For instance, we may tell in detail the properties and relations of words in some such way as the following outline suggests:—

1. In parsing a noun tell its kind (common or proper), gender, number, and case.

Since every noun used as a subject takes a verb in the third person, there is little use in requiring the pupil to name the *person* of nouns. As for gender, it need not be given if the noun is neuter, but only when it is masculine or feminine.

2. In parsing an adjective tell its degree of comparison and what it modifies.

3. In parsing a pronoun tell its kind, gender, person, number, and case. If it is a relative pronoun name its antecedent and explain its agreement therewith in gender, person, and number. If it is an interrogative pronoun tell its number and case.

4. In parsing a verb tell whether it is strong or weak, transitive or intransitive, and name its voice, mood, tense, person, number, and subject.

5. In parsing an adverb tell its kind and what it modifies.

In some cases the teacher may easily waste time by requiring pupils to determine whether a given word is a conjunction or a conjunctive adverb.

6. In parsing a preposition point out the words between which it shows relation.

7. In parsing a conjunction tell its kind (coördinate or subordinate) and point out what words or groups of words it connects.

8. Why is the word an interjection?

This scheme of parsing omits many minor details. But simple as it is, a still simpler scheme suffices to show the *essential* relations of the words in a sentence. We may therefore save much time by confining ourselves to such relations. For instance, in parsing the various parts of speech it is enough to answer the following questions:—

Noun.—In what case is it?

Pronoun.—Of what kind and in what case is it?

Adjective.—What noun or pronoun does it modify?

Verb.—Is it complete in meaning, and if not, what is its complement? What is its subject?

Adverb.—What verb, adjective, or other adverb does it modify?

Preposition.—Between what words does it show relation?

Conjunction.—What words or groups of words does it connect?

Interjection.—In parsing an interjection simply name it.

CHAPTER XCIII

A REVIEW

Write five sentences, each containing a noun or a pronoun in the nominative absolute. Name five verbs that may take an objective complement, and use each of these verbs in a sentence containing an objective complement.

Define an adverb. Write three sentences, each containing a simple adverb; three containing interrogative adverbs; three containing conjunctive adverbs.

Name five copulative verbs. Use each of them in a sentence containing a predicate nominative. Name five verbs that, when used in the passive voice, may be followed by a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective. Put into sentences five of these verbs in the passive voice.

Write sentences to illustrate the difference between the complement of a transitive verb and the complement of a copulative verb.

PART III

CHAPTER XCIV

FOR PARSING, ANALYSIS, AND A GENERAL REVIEW

Exercise 264

Review pages 12–15. Explain the cases of all the nouns in Exercise 67 (p. 54).

Exercise 265

Review pages 105–108. In Exercise 100 (p. 85) write the possessive singular and plural of all the nouns that are the names of living objects. Explain the cases of all these nouns.

Exercise 266

Review pages 126–128. Give the inflection and explain the use of the personal pronouns in Exercise 147.

Exercise 267

Review pages 139–145. In Exercise 263 compare the adjectives that admit comparison and show what noun or pronoun each modifies. Use in sentences these same adjectives or five of your own in the comparative and the superlative degree.

Exercise 268

Parse the words and analyze the sentences in the following paragraphs:—

A bell rang in the long corridor, and the slight sound recalled her to life and action. She walked toward the door which led into the sitting-room and opened it without knocking.

There was a little balcony at her command. As she noiselessly stepped out upon it, between three and four o'clock in the morning, she felt herself the solitary comrade of the mist-veiled lake and of the high, rosy mountains on the eastern verge.

Exercise 269

Review pages 51–53. In Exercise 77 (p. 61) select the prepositional phrases and explain their use. Correct the faulty grammar in the phrase “between you and I.”

Exercise 270

Review pages 120–123. Use the following nouns as subjects in simple declarative sentences. Write the possessive plural of each noun: *Dog, fox, horse, wolf, bear, robin, canary, crow, hawk.*

Exercise 271

Review pages 26–28. Write twelve sentences, each containing an appositive. Be careful about the punctuation of the appositive phrases. In the first four sentences make the appositives explain nouns in the

nominative case, in the next four make them explain nouns in the objective case, and in the last four make them explain pronouns.

Exercise 272

Review pages 21-23, 48-50, 66-73. In Exercise 93 (p. 77) select the phrases and dependent clauses and explain their use.

Exercise 273

Parse the words and analyze the sentence:—

Pushing with restless feet the snow

To right and left, he lingered;—

As restlessly her tiny hands

The blue-checked apron fingered.

Exercise 274

Write ten sentences, each containing a prepositional phrase used like an adjective.

Exercise 275

Write ten sentences, each containing a prepositional phrase used like an adverb.

Exercise 276

Review pages 131-136. Add to the following sentences explanatory or restrictive clauses. What is the difference in the punctuation of explanatory and of restrictive clauses? ¹

¹ The punctuation of the sentences in the exercise is purposely left incomplete.

1. The breeze ——— had been blowing strongly died suddenly down.

2. At the entrance to the harbor the man-of-war ——— lay at anchor swung lazily with the tide.

3. On the deck the sailors ——— were gathered in groups looked like dark moving specks.

4. The officer ——— was giving orders to the watch could be made out by the help of a glass.

5. The great guns ——— shone like silver seemed harmless enough.

6. In the town the rumors ——— were flying about were of the wildest sort.

7. One man ——— talked incessantly was running up and down the pier with papers in his hands.

Exercise 277

In Exercise 82 (p. 67) explain the use of commas with relative clauses.

Exercise 278

Find in one of your text-books adverbial clauses set off by one or more commas. Find other adverbial clauses that are not set off by commas. When is the comma used to separate an adverbial clause from the main clause?

Exercise 279

Review pages 188, 189.

Write the principal parts of the following verbs:—

Blow, bring, burst, come, do, eat, fly, freeze, give, go, grow, ride, rise, shake, show, sing, smile, steal, choose.

Exercise 280

Put into a sentence the indicative past or past perfect tense of each of the following verbs:—

Awake, begin, break, drink, know, lay, ring, run, see, set, sink, sit, spring, take, throw, write.

Exercise 281

Parse the words and analyze the sentences:—

Down the narrow street sounded the steady tramp of the advancing columns. The red light of smoking torches flared in the faces of women looking timidly down from upper windows. No lights appeared in the houses. There was no shouting. There were no spectators in the streets. The soldiers seemed to see nothing but the figure of their leader riding silently at the head of the regiment.

Exercise 282

Review pages 35–39. In Exercise 140 select the verbs. Put into separate columns the transitive and the intransitive verbs.

Exercise 283

Review pages 185–187. In Exercise 160 put into separate columns the strong and the weak verbs.

Exercise 284

Use some of the following verbs in sentences, and explain in each case whether the verb is used transitively or intransitively:—

Break, put, sail, share, endure, shrink, rise, advance, hasten, attack, happen, move, capture, learn, assist, excite, feel, reach, praise, draw, plunge, favor, cross, flatter, lose, struggle, live.

Exercise 285

Review pages 194–196. Using *he* as the subject, write the complete tenses of the following verbs in the active and the passive voice:—

Break, do, know, see, write.

Exercise 286

Parse the words in the following stanza:—

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Exercise 287

Review pages 40–45. Select and explain the copulas and the copulative verbs in Exercise 2.

Exercise 288

Review pages 205, 206. Write five sentences, each containing a verb that asserts a fact.

Exercise 289

Write five questions. In what mood and tense is the verb in each?

Exercise 298

What is the difference between an adjective and an adverb? Illustrate the difference by writing ten simple declarative sentences, each containing an adjective and an adverb.

Exercise 299

Review pages 35-37, 57-59. Write ten sentences, each having a direct and an indirect object.

Exercise 300

Analyze the sentences in the following paragraph:—

We began the ascent of the mountain at four o'clock in the morning, for we did not wish to sink deeply into the snow. We were tied together with a rope. Each of us had an axe and a pole shod with iron. The first mile or two was made almost in silence. Then the dawn began to light up the highest peaks and tinge the snow-fields with a ruddy glow. Half an hour later the sun peered through a gap in the mountain wall and flooded the valleys with radiance. Seven thousand feet below we saw the images of the flying clouds moving across the blue lake. An eagle wheeled just above our heads. We now rested for a time and prepared for the steep climb to the still distant summit.

Exercise 301

Review pages 64, 65. Write six sentences containing interjections. Remember to use the exclamation point in each sentence.

Exercise 302

Review pages 66-77. In the following sentences select the clauses and explain their use:—

1. At the moment the soldier raised the flask he saw a thirsty child lying by the roadside.

2. After he had climbed for an hour he again grew very thirsty.

3. While he was hanging his flask to his belt again he saw a little dog on the rock.

4. When he came in sight of the valley he saw a river springing from a new cleft of the rocks above it.

5. He went out every day after the weather became settled.

6. When he reached his home his father could not recognize him.

Exercise 303

Parse the words and analyze the sentences in the preceding exercise.

Exercise 304

Make a simple sentence of each clause in the complex sentences of Exercise 83 (pp. 67, 68). What connective is used in each dependent clause?

Exercise 305

Parse the words and analyze the sentences in the following paragraph:—

The moon was just rising. At that moment the soft splash of oars was heard, and a light skiff cut through the broad band of moonlight and made for the opposite shore of the

lake. The oarsman was a young man, powerfully built, and wore no hat. He tossed his heavy dark hair as he swayed backward and forward with the steady swing of the oars. In a few minutes he landed, drew his boat out of the water, and hid it in a dense thicket of willows. Then he gave a low whistle and started rapidly up the path leading to the castle.

Exercise 306

Review pages 248–250. Write five sentences, each containing a nominative absolute. Remember that the phrase containing the nominative absolute should be cut off from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas.

Exercise 307

Rewrite all the sentences you wrote for the preceding exercise, changing the nominative absolute phrases to clauses.

Exercise 308

Review pages 62–64. Write ten sentences to illustrate the use of the nominative independent by direct address. Use quotation marks in every sentence, and be careful about the use of commas to set off from the rest of the sentence the nouns used independently.

Exercise 309

Parse the words and analyze the sentences in the following paragraph:—

The spring night had fallen. The room was hot, and she threw a window open. Some thorns in the garden below had

thickened into leaf. They rose in a dark mass beneath the window. Overhead, beyond the haze of the great city, a few stars twinkled, and the dim roar of London life beat from all sides upon the quiet corner which still held the old house.

Exercise 310

Parse the words and analyze the sentences in the following paragraph:—

One of my friends has recently bought a large estate on one of the Great Lakes. I visited him the other day. He spends much of his time in planning improvements. He keeps twenty men at work throughout the year. If you were to meet him you would hardly suspect him to be the owner. He always dresses very plainly. Some of his men make far more display than he does.

Exercise 311

Parse the words and analyze the sentences in the following paragraph:—

The boy paused as he approached the great river. Before him lay the city with its thousands of lights twinkling through the darkness. The receding tide carried the rushing flood of water through the huge stone arches of the bridge. Here and there he saw a black vessel straining at its anchor. But the roar of the city streets was hushed. Now and then a belated householder glanced at him in passing. But the boy said nothing. He felt more and more that he was alone in the largest city in the world.

APPENDIX

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

The strong verbs were once far more numerous than they are now. But during a long period when English was almost wholly a spoken rather than a written language, the strong verbs tended more and more to become like the weak verbs. We notice the tendency even now among children and uneducated people to use such forms as *growed* and *knowed* for *grew* and *knew*. Some verbs once strong are now weak in all their parts. Some strong verbs have taken on a weak form in the past tense or the past participle, and are now partly strong and partly weak. A few weak verbs have taken strong forms. Where there are both strong and weak forms for the past tense or the past participle the strong forms are as a rule more commonly used in the higher, solemn style than in ordinary speech or writing. Sometimes the strong form is used as an adjective and the weak form as a participle.

For convenience of reference the strong and the weak verbs are here put together in an alphabetical list and their principal parts given. The strong verbs and the strong forms of weak verbs are printed in

bold-faced type. The reference after each verb is to the group of verbs with which it may be classed. In the course of centuries there has been so much shifting of forms that no classification is entirely satisfactory. The same verb may have forms in part like those of one class and in part like those of another class. But the value of any system that groups together verbs of the same sort is considerable.

NOTE.—Owing to the practical aim of this book the archaic and rare forms are kept in the background. A few of the more common archaisms are added, but with an indication of their character. The teacher should emphasize the fact that these forms are survivals which are common in the Bible and in poetry, and now and then occur in proverbial expressions, but which should be avoided in ordinary speech and writing.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF STRONG VERBS AND OF IRREGULAR¹ WEAK VERBS

abide	abode	abode I (b)
alight	{ alighted alit	{ alighted 1 alit ²
am(he)	was	been VIII
arise	arose	arisen I (a)
awake	{ awoke awaked (<i>rare</i>)	{ awoke VI (b) awaked
bear	{ bore	{ borne born (<i>brought forth</i>) ³ IV
beat	beat	beaten VIII
beget	begot	begotten v (b)
begin	began	begun III (a)

¹ Many of the apparent irregularities are easily intelligible when the forms of the verbs are studied as they appear in the older periods of the language.

² Less common.

³ *Born* is always used as a passive participle.

clothe	{ clothed clad }	{ clothed 10 clad 10 }
come	came	come VIII
cost	cost	cost 12
creep	crept	crept 5
crow	{ crowed } { crew }	crowed 8, VII (a)
curse	{ cursed curst }	{ cursed 1 curst 1 }
cut	cut	cut 12
dare	{ dared } { durst }	dared 1
deal	dealt	dealt 5
dig	dug	dug III (d)
do	did	done VIII
draw	drew	drawn VII (a)
dream	{ dreamed dreamt }	{ dreamed 1 dreamt 1 }
dress	{ dressed drest }	{ dressed 1 drest 1 }
drink	drank	{ drunken (<i>adj.</i>) III (a) drunk III (a)
drive	drove	driven I (a)
dwell	dwelt	dwelt 1
eat	ate	eaten V (a)
engrave	engraved	{ engraved 8 engraven ¹ 8 }
fall	fell	fallen VII (b)
feed	fed	fed 4
feel	felt	felt 5
fight	fought	fought III (b)
find	found	found III (b)
flee	fled	fled 6
fling	flung	flung III (c)
fly	flew	flown VII (a)
forbear	forbore	forborne IV
forget	forgot	forgotten V (b)

¹ Used in the solemn style.

forsake	forsook	forsaken VI (a)
freeze	froze	frozen II
freight	freighted	{ freighted fraught (<i>adj.</i>) 9
get	got	{ got gotten ¹ V (b)
gird	{ girded girt	{ girded girt 1
give	gave	given V (a)
go	went (<i>weak</i>)	gone VIII
grave	graved	{ graved graven (<i>adj.</i>) 8
grind	ground	ground III (b)
grow	grew	grown VII (a)
hang	{ hung hanged (<i>executed</i>)	{ hung hanged (<i>executed</i>) III (c)
have	had	had 10
hear	heard	heard 6
heave	{ hove heaved	{ hove heaved VI (b)
hew	hewed	{ hewn 8 hewed
hide	hid	{ hidden I (c) hid
hit	hit	hit 12
hold	held	held VII (b)
hurt	hurt	hurt 12
keep	kept	kept 5
kneel	{ kneeled knelt	{ kneeled knelt 1
knit	{ knitted knit	{ knitted knit 1
know	knew	known VII (a)
lade	laded	{ laden (<i>adj.</i>) 8 laded
lay	laid	laid 7
lead	led	led 4

¹ *Gotten* is common in America, but is much less used in England.

lean	{ leaned leant ¹	{ leaned 1 leant ¹ 1
leap	{ leaped leapt (<i>rare</i>)	{ leaped leapt (<i>rare</i>) 1
learn	{ learned learnt	{ learned 1 learnt 1
leave	left	left 2
lend	lent	lent 3
let	let	let 12
lie	lay	lain v (c)
light	{ lighted lit	{ lighted 1 lit 1
lose	lost	lost 6
make	made	made 10
mean	meant	meant 5
meet	met	met 4
melt	melted	{ melted molten (<i>adj.</i>) 8
mow	mowed	{ mowed mown (<i>adj.</i>) 8
pay	paid	paid 7
pen (<i>inclose</i>)	{ penned pent	{ penned 1 pent 1
put	put	put 12
quit	{ quitted quit	{ quitted 1 quit 1
read	read	read 4
rend	rent	rent 3
rid	rid	rid 12
ride	rode	ridden I (a)
ring	rang	rung III (a)
rise	rose	risen I (a)
run	ran	run III (a)
saw	sawed	{ sawed 8 sawn
say	said	said 7
see	saw	seen v (a)

¹ Less common.

seek	sought	sought 9	
seethe	{ sod seethed	{ sodden (<i>adj.</i>) seethed	II
sell	sold	sold 11	
send	sent	sent 3	
set	set	set 12	
sew	sewed	{ sewed 8 sewn	
shake	shook	shaken VI (a)	
shape	shaped	{ shaped 8 shapen (<i>adj.</i>)	
shave	shaved	{ shaved 8 shaven (<i>adj.</i>)	
shear	{ shore ¹ sheared	{ shorn ¹ IV sheared	
shed	shed	shed 12	
shine	{ shone shined (<i>rare</i>)	{ shone I (b) shined (<i>rare</i>)	
shoe	shod	shod 6	
shoot	shot	shot 6	
show	showed	{ shown 8 showed	
shred	{ shredded shred	{ shredded 1 shred	
shrink	shrank	{ shrunken (<i>adj.</i>) shrunk	III (a)
shut	shut	shut 12	
sing	sang	sung III (a)	
sink	sank	{ sunken (<i>adj.</i>) sunk	III (a)
sit	sat	sat V (c)	
slay	slew	slain VII (a)	
sleep	slept	slept 5	
slide	slid	{ slidden I (c) slid	
sling	slung	slung III (c)	
slink	slunk	slunk III (c)	

¹ Used in the solemn style.

slit	slit	slit 12	
smell	{ smelled	{ smelled	1
	{ smelt	{ smelt	
smite	smote	smitten	I (a)
sow	sowed	{ sowed	8
		{ sown	
speak	spoke	spoken	v (b)
speed	{ speeded	{ speeded	1
	{ sped	{ sped	
spell	{ spelled	{ spelled	1
	{ spelt	{ spelt	
spend	spent	spent	3
spill	{ spilled	{ spilled	1
	{ spilt	{ spilt	
spin	spun	spun	III (c)
spit	spit	spit	12
split	split	split	12
spoil	{ spoiled	{ spoiled	1
	{ spoilt	{ spoilt	
spread	spread	spread	12
spring	sprang	sprung	III (a)
stand	stood	stood	VI (b)
stave	{ stove	{ stove	VI (b)
	{ staved	{ staved	
stay	{ stayed	{ stayed	1
	{ staid	{ staid	
steal	stole	stolen	IV
stick	stuck	stuck	III (d)
sting	stung	stung	III (c)
strow	strewed	strewn	8
stride	strode	stridden	I (a)
strike	struck	{ stricken (<i>adj.</i>)	III (d)
		{ struck	
string	strung	strung	III (c)
strive	strove	striven	I (a)
swear	swore	sworn	IV
swear	{ sweated	{ sweated	1
went	{ sweat	{ sweat	

sweep	swept	swept 5
swell	swelled	{ swollen ¹ 8 swelled
swim	swam	swam III (a)
swing	swung	swung III (c)
take	took	taken VI (a)
teach	taught	taught 9
tear	tore	torn IV
tell	told	told 11
think	thought	thought 9
thrive	{ thrive thrived	{ thriven thrived I (a)
throw	threw	thrown VII (a)
tread	trod	{ trodden trod V (b)
wake	{ woke waked	{ woke waked VI (b)
wear	worn	worn IV
weave	wove	woven V (b)
wed	wedded	{ wedded wed 1
weep	wept	wept 5
wet	wet	wet 12
whet	{ whetted whet	{ whetted whet 1
win	won	won III (c)
wind	wound	wound III (b)
work	{ worked wrought ²	{ worked wrought ² 9
wring	wrung	wrung III (c)
write	wrote	written I (a)

NOTE.—*The teacher may profitably use the following lists as a basis for exercises in requiring pupils to write or give orally the principal parts of verbs that form their parts in the same or similar ways. It need hardly be said that the lists are not to be committed to memory.*

¹ Commonly an adjective.

² Less common. The adjective form is *wrought*.

CLASSES OF STRONG VERBS

CLASS I

		(a)		
arise	ride	smite	strive	write
drive	rise	stride	thrive	
		(b)		
	abide		shine	
		(c)		
bite	chide	hide	slide	

CLASS II

choose	freeze	seethe
--------	--------	--------

CLASS III

		(a)		
begin	ring	shrink	sink	swim
drink	run	sing	spring	
		(b)		
bind	fight	find	grind	wind
		(c)		
cling	hang	slink	sting	swing
fling	sling	spin	string	wring
		(d)		
	dig	stick	strike	

CLASS IV

bear	break	steal	tear
forbear	shear	swear	wear

CLASS V

		(a)	
bid (<i>order</i>)	eat	give	see
		(b)	
get	forget	tread	
beget	speak	weave	
		(c)	
lie	sit		

CLASS VI

	forsake	(a)	shake		take
		(b)	stand	stave	wake
awake	heave				

CLASS VII

		(a)			
draw		crow	grow		slay
blow		fly	know		throw
	behold	(b)	fall		hold

CLASS VIII

am	beat	come	do	go
----	------	------	----	----

CLASSES OF IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS

CLASS 1

bless	gird	pen (<i>inclose</i>)	spoil
burn	kneel	quit	stay
curse	knit	shred	sweat
dare	lean	smell	wed
dream	leap	speed	whet
dress	learn	spell	
dwelt	light	spill	

CLASS 2

bereave	cleave	leave
---------	--------	-------

CLASS 3

bend	gird	rend	spend
build	lend	send	

CLASS 4

bleed	feed	meet	read
breed	lead	speed	

CLASS 5

creep	feel	mean	sweep
deal	keep	sleep	weep

CLASS 6

flee	hear	lose	shoe	shoot
------	------	------	------	-------

CLASS 7

lay	pay	say	stay
-----	-----	-----	------

CLASS 8

crow	lade	sew	sow
grave	melt	shape	strew
engrave	mow	show	swell
hew	saw		

CLASS 9

beseech	buy	seek	think	work
bring	catch	freight	teach	

CLASS 10

clothe	make	have
--------	------	------

CLASS 11

sell	tell
------	------

CLASS 12

bet	cut	rid	spit
bid (<i>offer</i>)	hit	set	split
burst ¹	hurt	shed	spread
cast	let	shut	thrust
cost	put	slit	wet

¹ *Burst* was originally a strong verb and is sometimes classed so even now.

HINTS ON PUNCTUATION

In your study of sentences you have from time to time been told what marks of punctuation are to be used in certain cases. A few words further on this matter may enable you to see more clearly why you should punctuate at all and how the study of grammar will help you in punctuating accurately. Marks of punctuation are not to be used at random, but only for the sake of making a thought more clear. They serve to indicate a break of some sort, and are therefore sometimes known as *stops*. When we speak we of course use no commas or periods or other marks of punctuation, but we indicate by pauses or by the inflection of the voice what words are to be taken together.

When we have made a complete statement we stop, and in writing we use a period. Hence the rule,—

A period is used after a complete statement, that is, after a declarative sentence (p. 2).

Questions (p. 4) are conveniently indicated to the eye by a question mark, or interrogation point, and exclamations by an exclamation point (p. 5). All interjections are exclamations.

If a sentence is brief and there is no break in the thought, no mark of punctuation is needed until the close. But, as we have seen throughout this book,

sentences frequently contain independent elements or modifiers which would hardly be missed if they were dropped out altogether. All these require to be set off by one or two commas to indicate that the connection between them and other words in the sentence is not close enough to warrant their being put together without some mark of separation. For the indication of breaks in the sentence we use the comma if the connection is somewhat close, the semicolon if the connection is less close, and the colon if the connection is slight. The precise marks to be used in the sentence are in some measure a matter of judgment, since there is often more than one way of correctly punctuating the same sentence.

We now gather together the various suggestions on punctuation that are scattered throughout the book. It is important to note that you should not leave the marks of punctuation until you have finished writing, and then add them as an after-thought. You should punctuate as you write, and unless you have properly punctuated a sentence you should not regard it as finished.

Appositive phrases (p. 27) are usually set off from the rest of the sentence by commas, but if the connection is very close the commas are sometimes omitted.

Exercise 1

Write ten sentences to illustrate the use of commas with appositive phrases.

The name of the person or thing addressed (p. 63) is set off from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas.

Exercise 2

Write ten sentences, using in each the nominative independent by direct address. Your sentences will be more interesting if you will put them in the form of a dialogue.

Commas are often used to separate dependent clauses (p. 75) from the rest of the sentence, but if the connection in thought is very close the comma should be omitted.

Exercise 3

Write ten complex sentences, using in each a dependent clause that must be set off from the main clause by a comma.

Exercise 4

Write ten complex sentences in which the connection in thought is so close that no comma should be used to separate the clauses.

The members of a compound sentence, whether joined by a connective or not, are usually separated by a comma (p. 79).

Exercise 5

Write ten compound sentences, using in each a comma to separate the members.

In your reading you will find compound sentences in which semicolons or colons are used to separate the members, but in your own writing you will do well to

avoid for the present the use of sentences that require the use of such marks of punctuation.

An explanatory relative clause (p. 134) is separated from the main clause by a comma. The restrictive relative clause is never separated by a comma from the main clause.

Exercise 6

Write ten sentences in which you use explanatory relative clauses. Write ten sentences in which you use restrictive relative clauses.

Exercise 7

Copy from one of your text-books five sentences containing explanatory relative clauses, and five containing restrictive relative clauses.

The participial phrase (p. 180) is often separated from the rest of the sentence by one or more commas. When a noun or pronoun is used absolutely with a participle (p. 249), the entire phrase must be set off by one or more commas.

Exercise 8

Write ten sentences to illustrate the use of commas to set off participial phrases.

Exercise 9

Write ten sentences, each containing a noun used as the nominative absolute with a participle.

NOTE.—Although the rules that follow have not been illustrated in this book, they should receive some attention. They have already been presented in “*Language Lessons*,” the first book of this series.

Words, phrases, and clauses, used in a series, without conjunctions to connect them, are separated by commas.

Exercise 10

Write four sentences, using in each a series of nouns; four sentences, using in each a series of adjectives; and four sentences, using in each a series of adverbs.

The comma should be used to introduce short quotations.

This rule refers to *direct* quotations. On page 138 you have illustrations of *indirect* quotations, which, as you remember, do not give the exact language but the substance of what has been spoken or written. Such quotations are not introduced by a comma.

Exercise 11

Write ten sentences, using in each a short *direct* quotation. Be careful in the use of quotation marks.

Exercise 12

Rewrite the sentences you wrote for the preceding exercise, and change the direct to indirect quotations. Do not use quotation marks with indirect quotations.

NOTE.—It is obvious that the grammar-school pupil should make sparing use of the semicolon, the colon, the dash, parentheses, and the exclamation point. The essential thing for the beginner is that he shall master the proper use of the comma, which presents the principal difficulty, and shall form the habit of inserting the period, the interrogation point, the apostrophe, and quotation marks where they regularly belong.

Dictation exercises and the careful copying by pupils of selected

pages of well-punctuated books—not dictated—are the most efficient means for drilling large classes in punctuation. If the sentences dictated to a class have been previously copied upon the blackboard, a curtain may be used to cover the matter until the time comes for correction. Pupils may then be required to correct one another's work by comparison with the proper form upon the blackboard. If the teacher desires to select exercises for dictation from this book, the material on the following pages will prove serviceable :—20, 25, 27, 54, 56, 61, 63, 65, 67, 68, 76, 79, 85, 101, 133, 136, 163, 205, 206, 213, 214, 222, 253.

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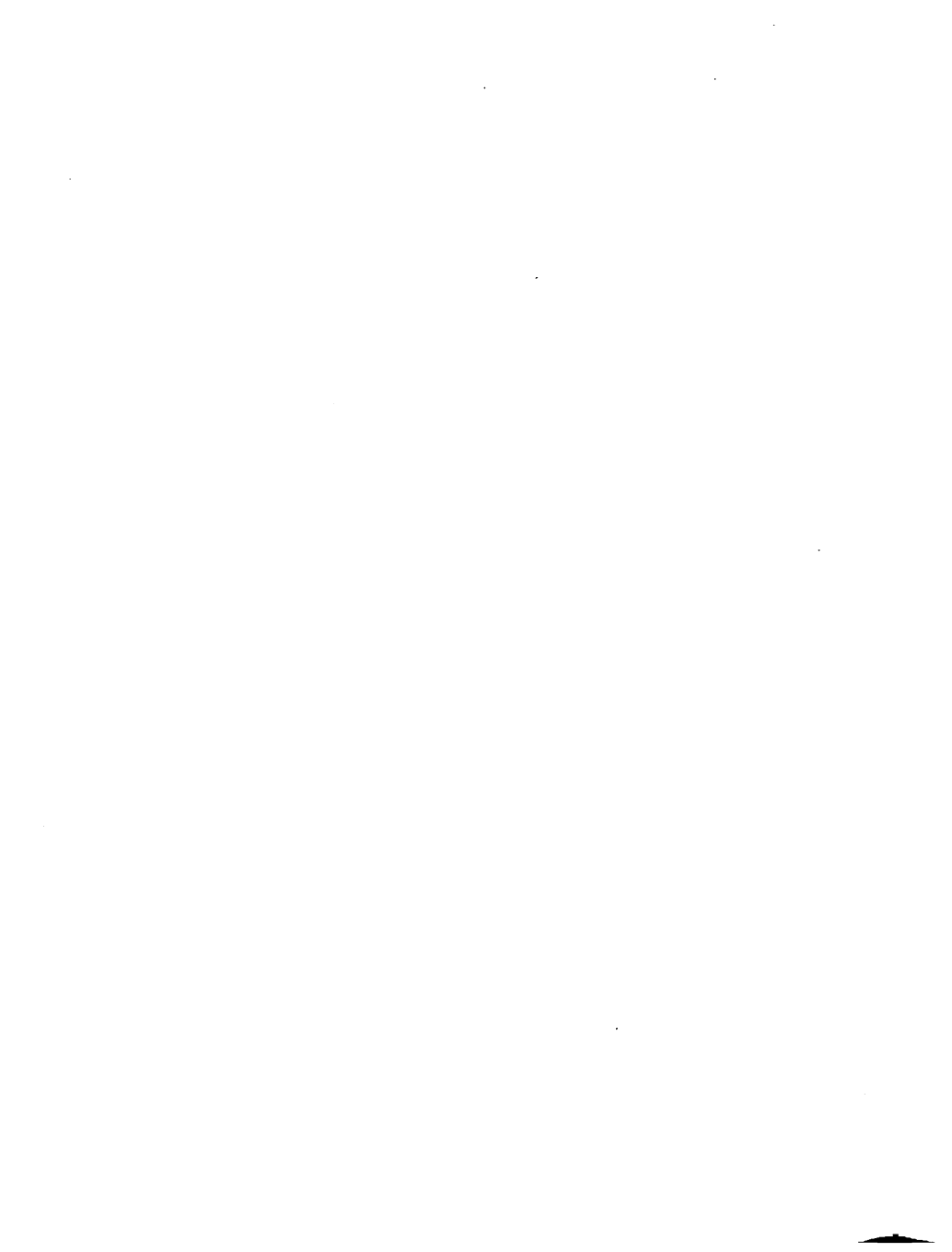
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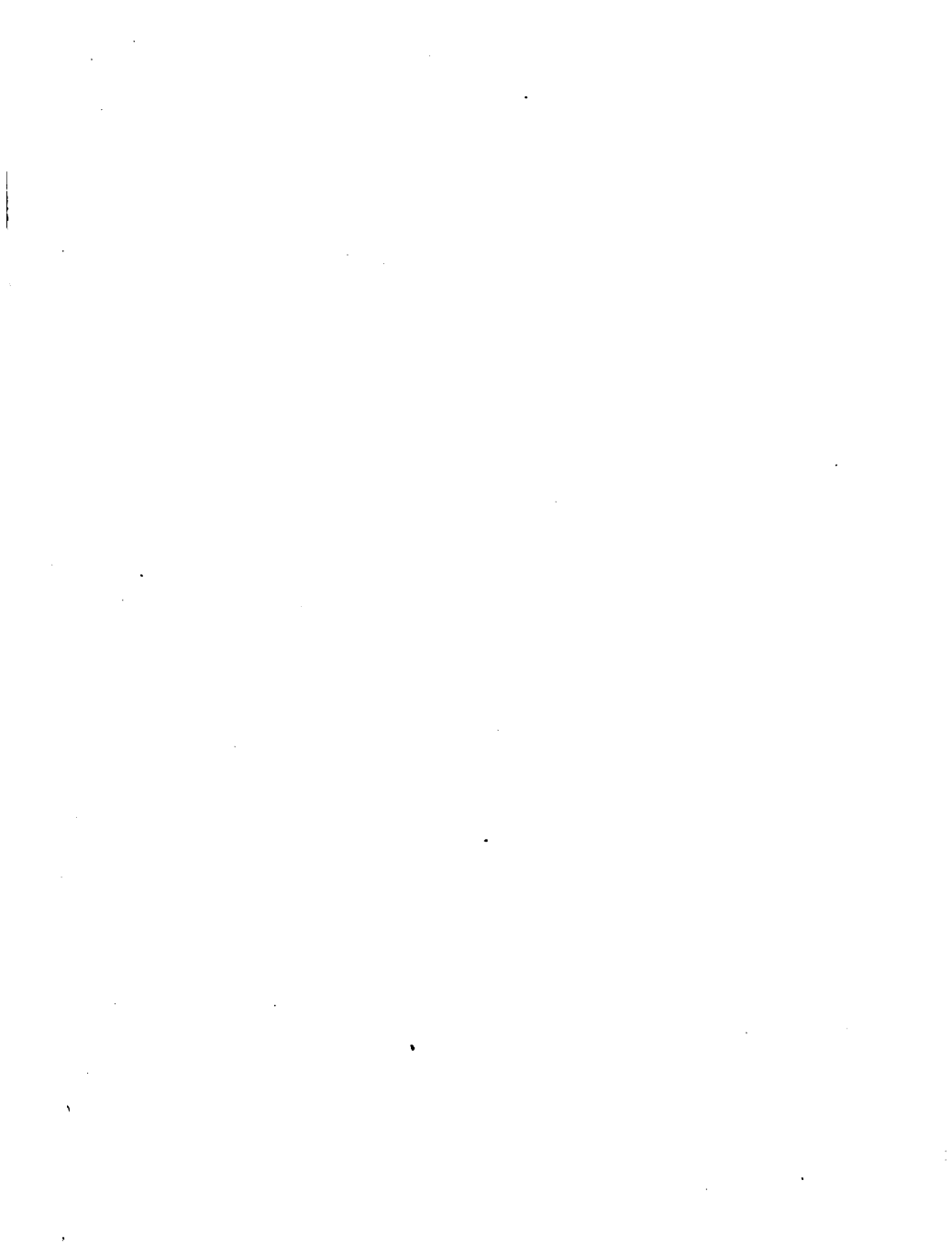
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